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*The Dominion of
New Zealand*

Arthur Percy Douglas

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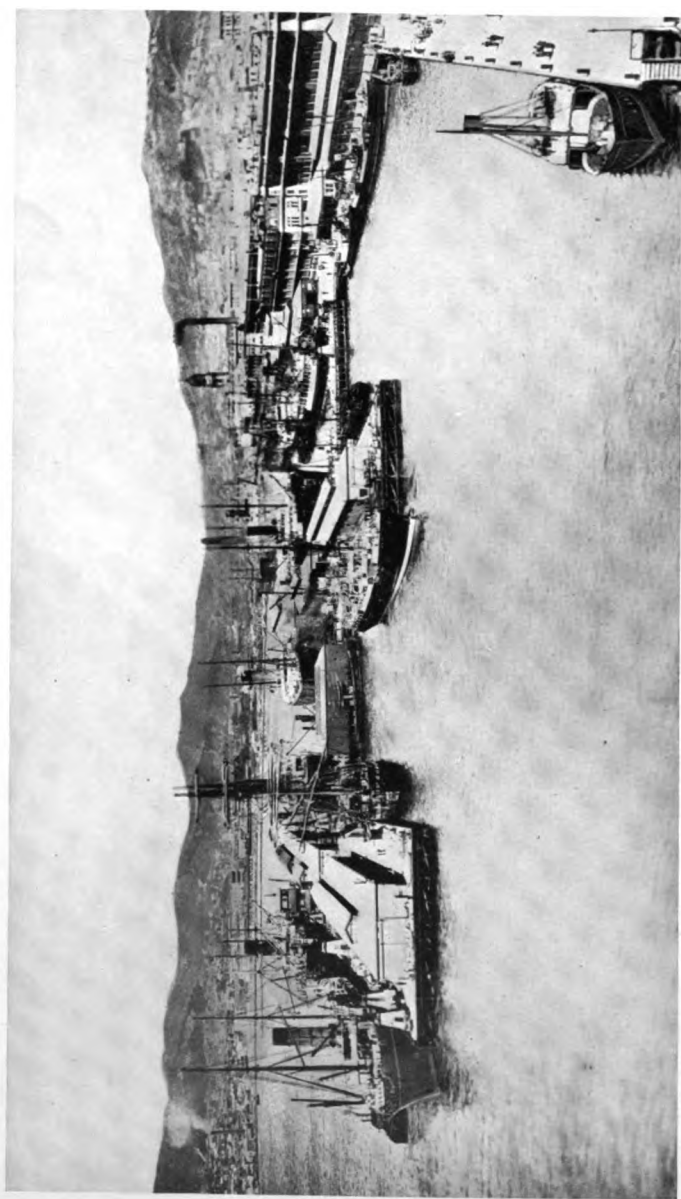
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QUEEN'S WHARF, WELLINGTON

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

BY

SIR ARTHUR P. DOUGLAS, F.R.S.

BOSTON

LITTLE, BROWN, AND COMPANY

1909



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THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

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TO
THE EARL OF RANFURLY,
G.C.M.G., ETC.,
WHO RENDERED SUCH GOOD SERVICE
TO NEW ZEALAND
DURING HIS SEVEN YEARS OF OFFICE
AS ITS GOVERNOR

PREFACE

THOSE who have resided in New Zealand for any length of time generally become enthusiastic about the dominion, its history, its rapid rise, and its many attractions.

It is especially difficult to avoid superlatives if one has had there, like the author, many experiences of colonial life under varied circumstances during a considerable number of years.

He has, however, endeavoured to steer a middle course and to tell an unvarnished tale. His aim throughout has been to write a book to which reference could be made with confidence and, at the same time, to avoid burdening its pages with unnecessary details.

The temptation to record here and there one's personal impressions, as in the chapter on the Flora of the dominion, has been great, but he has left all such word-painting to the guide-book writer. It may be said without exaggeration that the natural beauties of the dominion baffle description. They must be seen to be thoroughly appreciated.

Exigencies of space have only permitted a brief allusion to many matters of general and political interest on which one would have liked to dwell, such as the advance of New Zealand on the road to prosperity, the growth of democratic ideas and the probable effect of the latter on the future of the country.

He has not specifically referred in the body of the work, except in the chapter on Geology, to those whose writings he has freely made use of.

He would like, however, especially to record here his

obligations to the authors of the following books, etc., from which he has obtained much valuable information :—

Captain Cook's Journal, edited by Captain Wharton, R.N.

The Long White Cloud (Ao-tea-roa), by William Pember Reeves.

The Colony of New Zealand, by William Gisborne.

Adventure in New Zealand, by Edward Jerningham Wakefield ; edited by Sir Robert Stout, K.C.M.G.

Birds of New Zealand, by Sir Walter Buller, K.C.M.G.

Manual of New Zealand Flora, by T. F. Cheeseman.

Grasses and Forage Plants of New Zealand, by Thomas Mackay.

Ferns and Fern Allies of New Zealand, by G. M. Thomson.

Plants of New Zealand, by R. M. Laing and E. W. Blackwell.

Animals of New Zealand, by Captain F. W. Hutton, F.R.S., and James Drummond.

Forest Flora of New Zealand, by Thomas Kirk.

His grateful thanks are also due to the Earl of Ranfurly, G.C.M.G., for allowing him access to his extensive library of books referring to New Zealand.

If the perusal of the following pages leads to an increased interest in one of the most loyal and most prosperous parts of the Empire beyond the seas, and if the work proves of practical value to those who contemplate settling in the dominion, the author will feel that his labours have not been in vain.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

PART I—DISCOVERY AND EARLY HISTORY

CHAPTER I

DISCOVERER AND OTHER EARLY VISITORS

	PAGE
TASMAN—Captain Cook—Result of Cook's explorations— Discoveries by Captain Sever—Other early visitors to New Zealand—Burning of a village by De Surville and consequences—Captain Vancouver—Sir James Ross ..	1

CHAPTER II

ACQUISITION

Appointment of Mr. Busby as British Resident—Dispute with Baron de Thierry—Captain Hobson appointed Governor—Signing of Treaty of Waitangi—New Zealand made an independent colony	13
--	----

CHAPTER III

BOUNDARIES AND AREA

Addition of the Cook group and other Pacific islands to the Dominion—Acreage—Attempt to colonize Sunday Island —Description of annexed islands	18
--	----

CHAPTER IV

EARLY COLONIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT

Troubles with the Maori—Missionary enterprise—Whale- fishing—Attempts at colonization—Forming of settle- ments—The New Zealand Land Company the first true settlers—The Wairau massacre—Trouble with the Maori—Appointment of Captain Grey—Uncertainty of Government as to best method of controlling the colony	28
---	----

CHAPTER V

THE MAORI RACE

Origin of the Maori race — The Maori religion — Physical qualities—Clothing—Occupation—Characteristic traits—	PAGE
Numbers	47

PART II

CHAPTER I

PHYSICAL AND ARTIFICIAL FEATURES

New Zealand originally a small group of islands—Mountains—Lakes—Plains—Rivers—Springs—Harbours	59
--	----

CHAPTER II

SCENERY

A country teeming with interesting features—Beautiful scenery—The Southern Alps—Geysers	68
---	----

CHAPTER III

CLIMATE

Lowest death-rate in the world—Temperature—Rainfall—Prevailing winds—Comparative temperatures	74
---	----

CHAPTER IV

GEOLOGY

Some sources of author's information—Varieties of geological features—Coal—Copper—Gold—Other minerals.. ..	81
--	----

CHAPTER V

FLORA

General remarks—The pine—Value of Kauri gum—Beech forests—The Nikau palm—Open country vegetation ..	87
---	----

CHAPTER VI

FAUNA

The only indigenous mammal—Other animals introduced— Amphibia—Reptilia—The Tuatara—Insects—Birds— The Kiwi—The Kea—The Tui—Sea birds—Game birds	PAGE 116
---	-------------

PART III

CHAPTER I

DEVELOPMENT, 1853-1870

First General Assembly—Appointment of Sir T. G. Browne as Governor—Dissatisfaction of the Maori—Difficulties of government—Formation of a native department—The Maori determine to have a king—War—Governor's proclamation —Proclamation withdrawn—Handing over to New Zealand Government the conduct of native affairs—Serious con- dition of affairs—Massacre at Poverty Bay—General progress of the colony—Earthquake at Wellington	.. 145
---	--------

CHAPTER II

CONSTITUTION, GENERAL GOVERNMENT AND FRANCHISE

Past and present constitutions—The Legislature—The Governor—The Legislative Council—The House of Representatives—The Franchise—Qualifications of electors—Elections 162
--	-------------

CHAPTER III

LOCAL AND MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Division into counties and boroughs—Population—Franchise system—Harbour boards 175
---	-------------

CHAPTER IV

TAXATION

Principle of taxation—Exemptions from land-tax— Provisions to prevent evasion of land-tax—Income-tax —Who are exempted from income-tax 181
--	-------------

CHAPTER V

NATIVE QUESTION

No native question—Maori Parliament	PAGE 191
---	-------------

CHAPTER VI

CUSTOMS AND TARIFF

Customs—Rates of duty on various items—Reciprocal trade	194
---	-----

CHAPTER VII

GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS

Original and present seat of government—Method of administration—Duties of the Public Trustee—The Civil Service	201
---	-----

CHAPTER VIII

FINANCE

General government—Local governing bodies—Tables from Official Year Book	208
--	-----

CHAPTER IX

EDUCATION

Omission of religious teaching—Education on national defence—Higher education—Scholarships—Manual and technical education—Schools of Mines—Institutions ..	214
--	-----

CHAPTER X

CONTROL OF THE SALE OF ALCOHOLIC LIQUORS

Local option—Dominion divided into licensing districts—How voting is conducted—Local option statistics—Hours of closing licensed houses—Prohibited persons—Clubs—Method of dealing with habitual drunkards	222
--	-----

CHAPTER XI

RAILWAYS

Railways under Government control—Facilities for travelling—Statistics	231
--	-----

CONTENTS

xiii

CHAPTER XII

OLD AGE PENSIONS

PAGE

How the Old Age Pensions Act is administered—Who are and who are not eligible for pensions	235
--	-----

CHAPTER XIII

LABOUR AND THE LABOUR LAWS

Labour laws introduced by Progressive ministry—Duties of Labour Department—Factories Act—Holidays—Shops and Offices Act—Wages Protection Act—Workmen's Wages Act—Public Contracts Act—Contractors and Workmen's Liens Act—Coal Mines Act—Mining Acts Compilation Act—Workers' Dwelling Acts—Government Advances to Workers' Act—Strikes and lock-outs ..	238
--	-----

CHAPTER XIV

BANKING AND WEALTH

Number of banks in New Zealand—Banking legislation—Savings Banks—Value of securities, amount of deposits, etc.	257
--	-----

CHAPTER XV

DEFENCE

First scheme mooted for defence of the Dominion—Services rendered by Sir William Jervois and Major-Genl. Shaw—Australasian Naval Defence Act—Compulsory service—Rates of pay in the Militia—Volunteers—The Defence Act Amendment Act—The Defence Council	261
--	-----

CHAPTER XVI

LAW AND JUDICIAL	279
------------------------	-----

CHAPTER XVII

POLICE	282
--------------	-----

CHAPTER XVIII

ALIEN QUESTION

Legislation regarding Chinese immigration—Persons prohibited from landing—Penalties	284
---	-----

PART IV—SOCIAL LIFE IN THE DOMINION

CHAPTER I

RELIGIOUS, SOCIAL, AND DOMESTIC LIFE ; DRINK AND

GAMBLING

PAGE

Statistics on religious bodies—Early development of intelligence in children—How New Zealand women occupy themselves—The farmer's life—Entertainments—The servant question—Shops and stores—Effect of wealth on social life	289
---	-----

CHAPTER II

SPORT

Football—Bowls—Hunting—Deer—Duck-shooting—Pheasants—Pig-hunting—Game season and cost of licences—Trout-fishing—Fishing season and cost of licences—Yachting—Swimming—Walking and racing—The "totalisator"—Remarks on climbing—Motoring ..	300
---	-----

CHAPTER III

THE PRESS

Newspapers—Names of leading dailies—Publications ..	316
---	-----

CHAPTER IV

LITERATURE AND ART

Absence of Dominion literature—Musical education—Art ..	320
---	-----

PART V—TRADE, COMMERCE, AND INDUSTRY

CHAPTER I

THE LAND, AND HOW THE COLONIST HAS USED IT

Past destruction of forests—Forest department—Farming—Facts connected with grain growing—Agricultural industries—Schools of farming	325
---	-----

CHAPTER II

LAND SYSTEM

Terms of Constitution Act of 1852—Proportions of area owned at present day by the State, the white settler, and the Maori—Method of disposing of Crown Lands—The improved farm settlement—The village settlement—Maori Lands Administration Act	337
---	-----

CONTENTS

XV

CHAPTER III

LAND DISTRICTS

PAGE

Division of land districts—Agricultural industries of Auckland — Hawke's Bay — Wellington — Taranaki — Marlborough — Westland — Canterbury — Otago— Southland	351
--	-----

CHAPTER IV

MINING

Mining industry—Gold—Number of mines—Coal-mining— Figures—Metals	361
---	-----

CHAPTER V

SEA FISHERIES

Prospects of local supply—Conditions of export—Oyster fisheries—Fish-hatcheries	365
--	-----

CHAPTER VI

SHIPPING

Time and trouble saved since introduction of steamers— Courtesy of present-day ships' masters—Description of vessels	368
--	-----

CHAPTER VII

MANUFACTURES

Development of industries—Table of industries and wages— Employment of labour—Mills and factories—Shops ..	370
---	-----

PART VI—THE DOMINION AND ITS RELATION TO THE EMPIRE

CHAPTER I

LOYALTY AND IMPERIALISM

Attachment to the Mother Country—Three great expressions of loyalty—The Boer War	375
---	-----

CHAPTER II

IMPERIAL DEFENCE

PAGE

What Imperial Defence means—Strengthening of New Zealand ports—Mutual obligations—Naval Reserve—Imperial Defence <i>versus</i> Militarism—Plans of defence discussed	380
--	-----

PART VII—DEVELOPMENT DURING RECENT YEARS

DEVELOPMENT—1870 TO 1908

General progress—Policy of Sir Julius Vogel—Act for Abolition of Provinces, 1875—Premiership of Sir George Grey—Triennial Parliament Act, 1879—The Parihaka troubles, 1881—Direct steamship communication between New Zealand and Great Britain, 1883—Volcanic eruptions at Tarawera, 1886—One man, one vote, 1890—Noted statesmen—Acts of Parliament—Noteworthy events of last ten years	389
---	-----

PART VIII

HINTS, ROUTES, COST OF LIVING, ETC.

General advice to intending emigrants—Routes—Cost of living—Openings for employment—Fares	405
Appendix I. Population	410
„ II. Agricultural and Pastoral Statistics	413
„ III. Average Rates of Wages in each Provincial District of New Zealand during the year 1907.. .. .	421
„ IV. Imports and Exports	427
„ V. Shipping	431
„ VI. Postal and Electric Telegraph	433
„ VII. Preliminary Expenses	435
„ VIII. Particulars as to Steamship Routes	436
„ IX. Principal Public Works Expenditure	437
Index	438

ILLUSTRATIONS

QUEEN'S WHARF, WELLINGTON	<i>Frontispiece</i>
	FACING PAGE
WHARVES AND SHIPPING (AUCKLAND)	22
WANGANUI RIVER	36
WANGANUI RIVER	62
WAIMANGU GEYSER	72
SUGARLOAF, BEALEY GORGE	98
A RAW SUGAR STORE (CHELSEA, AUCKLAND)	126
HAMILTON (WAIKATO DISTRICT)	154
CHRISTCHURCH, CANTERBURY	222
DUNEDIN, LOOKING SOUTH	280
GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS, WELLINGTON	296
LYTTELTON	312
MOUNT COOK AND ST. DAVID'S DOME	316
GOLD DREDGE, BULLER GORGE	360
AOROA MILLS, NAIROA RIVER	372
GOVERNMENT EXPERIMENTAL STATION (WAERENGA) . .	392

INTRODUCTION

AMONGST the many oversea possessions of the British Crown, there are some which undoubtedly have greater historical interest than New Zealand as judged from an old world standpoint. In other words, New Zealand was not one of those round which, or on behalf of which, battles were fought to decide who was to be the possessor and what should be England's position amongst the nations of the world.

New Zealand was peacefully acquired without any struggle with foreign powers. It has, nevertheless, a history of its own which is of the greatest interest. Discovered by a celebrated Dutchman only two hundred and sixty-six years ago, circumnavigated and its coastline surveyed by one of England's greatest mariners only a hundred and forty years ago, and made one of England's colonies less than seventy years ago, it has passed through native wars and stormy times of trial to occupy a position second to none among the dominions beyond the seas of His Majesty King Edward the VIIth.

Inhabited as it was in bygone days by savage tribes who were cannibals, and who were always fighting amongst themselves, but who are now at peace not only with one another but with the race which took their country under its flag, it holds a place of honour amongst the territories that have been added during the last seventy years to the dominions acknowledging the sovereignty of the British Crown.

Whether one turns to the history of the ancient race who were the occupiers of the soil when the islands were first discovered, or to the history of the white people who first came to live in them, to the story of the early settlers after the annexation, or to that of the people who now live there, all is found to be of absorbing interest.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

PART I DISCOVERY AND EARLY HISTORY

CHAPTER I

DISCOVERER AND OTHER EARLY VISITORS

TASMAN—Captain Cook—Result of Cook's explorations—Discoveries by Captain Sever—Other early visitors to New Zealand—Burning of a village by De Surville and consequences—Captain Vancouver—Sir James Ross.

NEW ZEALAND was discovered in 1642 by the great Dutch navigator, Abel Jansen Tasman, who first sighted it on the 13th of December in that year, in the yacht "Heemskirk," in which, accompanied by a small vessel called the "Zeehan," he was making a voyage of discovery.

Tasman's stay in New Zealand waters was not a long one, as, after sailing along the west coast of the South Island and anchoring for a short time in Golden Bay, on the north-west coast of that island, which he called "Massacre Bay" on account of an attack which was made upon one of his boats' crews when four men were killed, he went north along the west coast of the North Island, and, having named the north-west extremity of that island Cape Maria Van Diemen, and sighting some islands to the northward which he named the "Three Kings," he continued his voyage.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Except for the fact of the discovery of a hitherto unknown land, and the geographical knowledge attained through the enterprise of the great Dutch navigator, there was no immediate practical result from this voyage.

Tasman believed New Zealand to belong to a great southern continent. His stay, however, was so short in its waters that he was prevented from finding out his mistake or giving any adequate description of this new land.

It remained for the great English explorer and navigator, Captain Cook, to complete the work commenced by Tasman.

The Royal Society in 1768 urged upon the Government the importance of making further explorations in the Pacific Ocean and of obtaining an observation of the transit of Venus the next year.

Owing to Captain Cook's reputation as a skilled navigator, seaman, and scientific explorer, he was chosen for the command. His selection was fully justified by the great success he achieved. Cook was then directed to find and secure the ship that, in his opinion, would be the most suitable for this voyage of discovery. He chose a Whitby-built collier of 370 tons, and after her purchase by the Government she was named the "Endeavour," and Cook was appointed lieutenant in command.

Cook's first voyage, therefore, although made in a vessel which he considered to be most suitable for the task he had undertaken, was accomplished in one so small that it would be considered in these days almost dangerous to make, in a vessel of the same size, a voyage of quite ordinary length.

Cook, however, like all those seamen of the old days, was ready to embark on a voyage and undertake explorations of seas the dangers of which were quite unknown.

Cook sailed from England on the 24th August, 1769,

COOK'S FIRST VISIT

on his first voyage to Southern Seas. This voyage it was proposed should include the observation of the transit of Venus, a visit to Tahiti, and the discovery of a southern continent then supposed to exist. On leaving Tahiti he sailed for the south and sighted the east coast of the North Island of New Zealand on October 6th, 1769.

The point of land first seen was called "Young Nick's Head" after a boy named Nicholas Young, who was the masthead-man that caught the first glimpse of the coast.

After working his ship in towards the land during the 7th October Cook anchored on the 8th in the bay which he named "Poverty Bay," because, as shown by his journal, he failed to obtain supplies there. These, however, he was able to get in the "Bay of Plenty," and it is somewhat curious that these two incidents resulted in a remarkable misnomer, a most fertile district being associated with the name of Poverty, while another district not nearly so highly favoured was connected with that of Plenty.

On the 11th October Cook left Poverty Bay, and sailing south named an island off the Mahia Peninsula "Portland Island" on account of its resemblance in his opinion to Portland Bill in the English Channel. Continuing his voyage south he named a bay "Hawke's Bay" after Sir Edward Hawke, the First Lord of the Admiralty, and the south-east point of it he called "Cape Kidnappers," on account of an attempt made there by the Maoris to seize a Tahitian boy he had on board.

On October 17th Cook decided to turn northward again, and named the cape off which he did so "Cape Turnagain." It was only four months after this that Cook saw this cape again when he approached it from the south after he had circumnavigated the North Island.

On leaving Cape Turnagain on his voyage north Cook called in at a bay named by the natives Tolaga Bay, where

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

he obtained necessary supplies of water, and stayed for some little time.

On October 30th he left Tolaga Bay and still sailing north passed the easternmost point of New Zealand ; and named it " East Cape," then he passed a bay, which he named " Hick's Bay " after one of his lieutenants. Then standing to the north-west he sighted an island and named it " White Island," but, strange to say, although the volcano then must have been active, Cook did not make any special record of it.

He next visited Mercury Bay, so named on account of the transit of Mercury having been observed there. Here he hoisted the flag that he called the " Union Colours," and took possession of the place in the name of His Majesty George III. He left on November 15th, and still pushing to the north-west he sighted a cape and named it " Cape Colville," surveyed and named the " River Thames," visited the Bay of Islands, named the " North Cape," and sighted The Three Kings. Without attempting to anchor Cook sailed past Cape Maria Van Diemen. A stormy voyage then began to the southward as the " Endeavour " thrashed her way down the west coast of the North Island.

On January 16th, 1770, the " Endeavour " came to an anchor in Ship Cove, which lies upon the south side of the straits ever since known by the name of their great discoverer. Thus one hundred and twenty-eight years elapsed between the day that the first white man's ship anchored off this part of the coast of New Zealand and the day that the " Endeavour " reached her anchorage in the same waters. Before leaving the anchorage Cook, for the second time in a few months, hoisted the Union Flag in New Zealand, and took possession of a place in the name of His Majesty. The place where he hoisted the Flag on the second occasion he named " Queen Charlotte's Sound."

COOK'S FAREWELL

Efforts were made by Cook to ascertain whether the natives at this place remembered any of the incidents that occurred during Tasman's visit in 1642, but nothing seemed to have been fixed in the native mind of what took place so far back.

After leaving this anchorage the "Endeavour" was worked to the eastward through the straits. After naming a cape on the north side of the eastern entrance to the straits "Cape Palliser" and the cape on the southern side "Cape Campbell," Cook turned north and reaching Cape Turnagain at the point from which he sailed northward on October 17th, 1769, completed the arduous task of circumnavigation of the North Island.

After leaving Cape Turnagain the "Endeavour" stood to the eastward, and shortly after bore up for the south with the view of discovering the exact position and extent of the country whose north-east cape Cook had named Cape Campbell when he passed through Cook's Strait.

On February 14th the vessel was off the Kaikoura Peninsula. On the 17th Banks' Peninsula was passed and named by Cook "Banks' Island," as he was under the impression that it did not form a portion of the mainland. On March 10th the southern portion of Stewart's Island was sighted and named "South Cape."

On February 14th a bay was sighted and named "Dusky Bay," as also a sound, named by him "Doubtful Sound," and on the 23rd he sighted the north-west point of the South Island, which point was afterwards to be called Cape Farewell. On February 27th Cook anchored in a bay on the north coast of the South Island and named it "Admiralty Bay."

It is recorded that he then said: "As we have now circumnavigated this country it is time for me to think of quitting it."

On March 31st anchor was weighed, and Cook, naming

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

his point of departure "Cape Farewell," sailed to the westward.

Cook visited New Zealand on five separate occasions. On the first, as already detailed, he completely decided the position and extent of this land which had only been once before seen by Europeans. He established the fact that it was composed of separate islands, made careful and accurate surveys of many places, and named several; made close observations of the country and its possibilities, as far as could then be ascertained; acquainted himself with the manners and customs of the inhabitants, and performed a feat of inestimable benefit to the empire.

The editor of Cook's journal, Captain W. J. Wharton, R.N., bears testimony to the value of these wonderful performances of the great navigator and to the marvellous accuracy of his work. Cook's account of New Zealand, as set forth in the journal, show him to have been the most painstaking and accurate recorder of all that he saw, and the opinions that he formed have been almost entirely borne out by the experience of those who have since lived there. As Captain Wharton says of his survey of the coast: "The astonishing accuracy of his outline of New Zealand must be the admiration of all who understand the difficulties of laying down a coast." Here it may be noted that, although Cook has been accused by certain writers of harshness towards the natives, the evidence upon which they rely by no means bears them out. Further testimony is also borne to the accuracy of Cook's work by E. J. Wakefield in his book, *Adventures in New Zealand*, in which he says, when speaking of his ship first making the land: "The headlands were easily recognizable from Cook's chart." Cook was accompanied on his first voyage by Mr. (afterwards Sir) Joseph Banks, Dr. Solander, a Swedish naturalist, and Mr. Green, of the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, who all volunteered for service in the cause of science. It was thought that the

COOK'S ACCURACY

two former would have greater opportunities of collecting specimens and of giving an account of the natural history of the country than Cook who, as Commander of the Expedition, would probably not have time for such occupation. The services of these two eminent men are well known, and no reflection of any kind is cast upon them when it is said that Cook's personal observations contributed greatly to the vast sum of knowledge gained for his country by that one expedition. The notable part taken by Mr. Green is well known, and it is said that he contributed very largely to the success of the observations made in Mercury Bay.

Cook was very fortunate also in Banks having been able to induce a native called Tupia from Tahiti to accompany him on his voyage to New Zealand, as it turned out that his services were invaluable, owing to the fact that the language he spoke was to a great extent understood by the natives of the newly-discovered land.

Cook did not confine his great services to his own country, but with an eye to the benefit of the people whose land he discovered, he sowed wheat and other useful food plants. In recounting certain later visits to Queen Charlotte's Sound he speaks of having seen some of the gardens made by Sir Joseph Banks and himself, and mentions that he found most of the plants which they had sown on his first visit flourishing luxuriantly. This supplies another instance of the thorough and painstaking way in which Cook carried out all his work. He also landed cocks and hens and pigs, and when one bears in mind the few places in which Cook was able to do so, it is somewhat remarkable that their progeny were many years afterwards found to have spread themselves over a vast extent of country. This appears to have been more especially the case with the pigs which have afforded much food and sport, not only to the native race but to the Colonists.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

In 1788 Macaulay and Curtis Islands of the Kermadec Group were discovered by Captain Sever of H.M. Transport "Lady Penrhyn"; in 1793 Raoul Island, of the same group by D'Entrecasteaux, and named in 1796 Sunday Island by Captain Raven of the transport "Britannia"; in 1790 the Chatham Islands by Lieutenant Broughton in H.M.S. "Chatham"; in 1800 Antipodes Island by Captain Pendleton; in 1806 the Auckland Islands by Captain Briscow of the whaling ship "Ocean"; in 1810 Campbell Island was discovered by Captain Hasalburg in the brig "Perseverance." The Bounty Islands were discovered by Captain Bligh in H.M.S. "Bounty" in 1788, and possession of them was taken by Captain G. Palmer in H.M.S. "Rosario" on July 9th, 1880; and in 1777 Cook discovered the group of islands ever since known by his name.

OTHER EARLY VISITORS TO NEW ZEALAND

Besides the discoverer whose work has already been detailed there were other visitors to the shores of New Zealand who contributed largely to the general knowledge of the country. Amongst these were the French Captain, De Surville, who was there in 1769 in the "St. Jean Baptiste," and was actually in the North Island at the same time as Cook when employed in the great task accomplished by him on his first voyage. They, however, did not meet one another, and it seems doubtful whether at the time either had knowledge of the presence of the other. De Surville's stay in New Zealand lasted only about a fortnight.

In 1772 Marion du Fresne came to New Zealand on an exploring expedition, having under his command two vessels named "Mascarin" and "Marquis de Castries." Both of these explorers gave French names to certain places, although Cook had already named them. De Surville called Doubtless Bay "Lauriston," and Du

MAORI AND THE FRENCH

Fresne called Mount Egmont "Le Pic Mascarin," but both places appear on the chart under the names given by Cook. Both the French expeditions ended badly. De Surville, on his arrival at Mangonui, near the Bay of Islands, was received with open arms by the Maori, but the hope of any good result arising from this visit was entirely destroyed by a discreditable incident. He had sent some invalids on shore to recuperate and the most friendly relations were being established when suddenly all was changed. When they were being taken back to the ship bad weather prevented them getting on board, and they had to land again. Unfortunately, at the time one of the ship's boats was lost. De Surville took for granted that the Maori had stolen it, and having enticed on board the chief, who had treated his sick so kindly, he detained him. He then burned the native village and sailed with his prisoner on board. The unfortunate man died shortly after having been taken away from his native land.

In 1772, when Marion du Fresne arrived in the Bay of Islands, the memory of the disgraceful occurrence bore its natural fruit. Sick Frenchmen were again landed and as before the Maori treated them with kindness. Du Fresne was inclined to accept this attention to his men as evidence of good faith, and allowed discipline to become slack, notwithstanding a warning given by Crozet, his second in command. He was also deceived by the attention bestowed upon himself personally. Shortly afterwards he went on shore with sixteen officers and men at the invitation of a chief. They never returned.

As there did not seem to be any cause for alarm at the non-appearance of the captain and his party some men were sent on shore the next day in one of the ship's boats for water. Not many hours after one of the men who had gone in the boat swam off to the ship and told the commanding officer that the Maori had attacked and killed all the rest.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Crozet, who was engaged with sixty men in felling Kauri trees for spars, on being informed of this, withdrew to the beach. The Maori, who then appeared in large numbers, called out to him that Marion and those who accompanied him had been killed and eaten. Crozet waited until his return on board before taking any steps to avenge the death of his captain and shipmates. He then ordered a heavy fire to be directed at the natives on the beach. The next day he took the further measure of landing some men with orders to destroy a village. This they did and also killed many natives. This party soon ascertained the fate of Marion and their shipmates, as the chief who had invited the latter ashore was seen to be wearing part of the captain's uniform. A quantity of human flesh was also found. The Maori said that their visitors had defiled their sacred places and had ill-treated some of their chiefs. Crozet said that his people had given no cause of offence. It is quite reasonable to suppose that the Europeans were entirely ignorant of the laws or significance of the Maori custom of "tapu" or making sacred.

The ill-treatment of the chiefs was a matter about which there were different accounts given by each side. There can be no doubt that the massacre was due to the Maori desire to get revenge for the ill-treatment of their chief by De Surville. The savage had remembered. Crozet, having prepared the ships under his command for sea, left New Zealand as quickly as possible.

It may here be said that Crozet bore testimony to the marvellous accuracy displayed by Cook in surveying and laying down the coast-line of the northern part of New Zealand.

Mention must also be made of other explorers who came to New Zealand in the latter part of the eighteenth century and the following few years.

DISCOVERIES BY THE FRENCH

Captain Vancouver in the "Discovery" stayed for some weeks in Dusky Sound in 1791. During that time much useful and interesting botanical information was obtained.

In 1824 the French surveying vessel "Coquille," Captain Duperry, was in the Bay of Islands. Two ardent naturalists who were on board added further to the botanical knowledge in regard to the islands. One of them, afterwards Admiral D'Urville, again visited New Zealand in 1827 when he was in command of the "Astrolabe" the same vessel in which he served when she was named the "Coquille." He was the discoverer of the strait called the "French Pass," which lies between the mainland of the South Island and an island called "D'Urville" after him. Having thus added to the geographical knowledge of Cook's Straits he passed up the east coast of the North Island as far as Whangarei, where he made a short stay. He then left for the south and anchored off Auckland Harbour. Here he made several excursions and acquired knowledge as to the position of Manukau Harbour, which is separated by only a narrow isthmus from the harbour off which he anchored. He left his anchorage by the Waiheke Channel, which was somewhat a risky performance. After a northern cruise he anchored in the Bay of Islands whence he left New Zealand. He spent a couple of months altogether on the coast.

The scientific information obtained during this voyage together with that obtained by Duperry, as well as a portion of the botanical knowledge gained during Cook's second voyage, was published in 1832 through the medium of the French Government.

In 1833 H.M.S. "Buffalo" arrived in New Zealand in search of a cargo of kauri spars which were thought would probably prove of great value.

Dr. Dieffenbach travelled over a considerable area in both the North and South Islands during the years

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

1839-40 and '41, and also the Chatham Islands, when he was naturalist to the New Zealand company. Dr. Dieffenbach's well-known work on New Zealand is of world-wide reputation.

During 1837 the Auckland Islands were visited by the French Antarctic expedition under Admiral D'Urville. D'Entrecasteaux was off the coast of New Zealand in 1793, but his stay did not produce any appreciable result.

In 1840 Sir James Ross, the celebrated Arctic explorer, arrived in New Zealand in command of the "Erebus," accompanied by the "Terror," commanded by Captain Crozier. During this voyage, which was undertaken for the purpose of the investigation of the phenomena of terrestrial magnetism, he went to the Auckland and Campbell Islands as well as to Stewart Island and made some remarkable observations. At the former island, in the port named after him he remarked upon the small islet called Shoe Island, that it was one mass of magnetic ore. Ross, after making his celebrated discovery of land in the Antarctic Circle, returned once more to New Zealand and stayed for three months at the Bay of Islands. One volume of Sir Joseph Hooker's valuable work on Antarctic flora dealt entirely with the results of his observations at the Auckland and Campbell Islands.

CHAPTER II

ACQUISITION

APPOINTMENT of Mr. Busby as British Resident—Dispute with Baron de Thierry—Captain Hobson appointed Governor—Signing of Treaty of Waitangi—New Zealand made an independent colony.

ALTHOUGH the fact of Cook having in 1769 hoisted the British flag both in the North and South Islands, and having on both occasions stated that he took possession in the name of His Majesty George III, it was followed by no practical result at the time. Nevertheless it paved the way to New Zealand becoming finally a portion of the British dominions beyond the seas.

No further steps leading in the direction of annexation were taken until some ten years after Cook's final departure from New Zealand (in 1777). However in 1787 it was included in the boundaries laid down in the proclamation constituting New South Wales a portion of the King's dominions, although it was not specifically named.

The first step towards exercising any direct British influence in New Zealand was the appointment of Mr. Busby in 1832 as British Resident. Mr. Busby was sent over by the New South Wales Government because the state of affairs amongst the Europeans had become so bad that it was felt that something ought to be done. The home government knew nothing about the matter themselves, and it occurred to them that the easiest way out of the difficulty was to direct that a British Resident should be sent over. Then they washed their hands of the whole business.

To a man who was not fitted in any way for dealing with a situation such as was to be found in New Zealand

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

at this time the outlook must have been indeed a grave one. Mr. Busby appears to have been a man who, though well-intentioned, had not the remotest idea as to what there was to be done, nor how to set about doing anything, even when he had ascertained the position of affairs. To make his troubles the worse, those who had appointed him did not seem to have any greater grasp of the subject than he had. Consequently his instructions were vague, and no power to do anything was given him. It was said at the time that he was in the position of a man-of-war without guns. The position might be more aptly described as that of a man-of-war without ammunition. Mr. Busby represented the vessel with pennant flying and guns on board, but with nothing in the magazines to enable the guns to be used.

During the time that Mr. Busby was the Resident, King William IV recognized the natives of New Zealand as an independent people and granted them a so-called national flag. Mr. Busby then entered into a paper warfare with one Baron de Thierry, who called himself "King of New Zealand" on the strength of his having, as he imagined, bought through a missionary a considerable tract of land. Mr. Busby's action in this case, as well as in one which he called granting a "constitution" to the natives, brought on him both censure and ridicule, and after having lived six years in the country, he departed.

This dispute of Mr. Busby's had, however, the effect, which was quite unintentional on his part, of drawing the attention of the authorities in England to the designs of the French upon New Zealand.

England's position in regard to the country had become a curious one. First Cook had hoisted the English flag on two separate occasions and had claimed British sovereignty. Then followed a period when it was practically a "no-man's-land." This in turn was followed by a British Resident being appointed during whose

NEW ZEALAND A BRITISH COLONY

term of office the King of England addressed the New Zealand natives as an independent people.

At last, however, from various causes, including that of the desire of the French to colonize the country, it became evident to the English Government that something must be done if they desired to make New Zealand a British colony. They determined, therefore, on sending a Governor with powers to make a treaty with the natives, if possible, and to proclaim British sovereignty.

On January 29th, 1840, Captain Hobson, R.N., landed in the Bay of Islands armed with authority to enter into a treaty with the natives to cede their lands to the British Crown. He was also empowered to proclaim New Zealand a British colony as soon as the cession by the natives had been granted, and to assume the position of Lieutenant-Governor.

On the day following his arrival, Captain Hobson issued two proclamations on behalf of Her Majesty. One of these asserted Her Majesty's authority over British subjects in New Zealand. The other declared that the Queen would not recognize the validity of any titles to land which had not been granted by the Crown, and that any purchase of native lands which took place subsequently to the proclamation would not be recognized. At the same time, the boundaries of New South Wales were extended so as to include any land in New Zealand over which Her Majesty acquired sovereignty.

On February 5th a large assembly of natives and Europeans was held at Waitangi, in the Bay of Islands. Captain Hobson addressed the gathering and announced Her Majesty's desire to obtain the consent of the Maoris to a treaty prepared with a view to ceding to her the sovereignty of the islands, while at the same time it guaranteed to them full and undisturbed possession of their lands and properties subject to Her Majesty's exclusive right of pre-emption over such portions of the

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

same as they might wish to part with. Her Majesty also granted to the natives by the treaty all the rights and privileges of British subjects.

On February 6th the negotiations were continued and on that day the Treaty of Waitangi was signed. Five hundred and twelve Chiefs signed the treaty within six months, and it may fairly be said that it was fully accepted by the Maori people.

The French bishop evidently considered himself to be the principal person in the country next to the Governor, and it was through no fault of his that the Chiefs signed the treaty. It was perfectly clear that the Act of Sovereignty was not performed a moment too soon.

On May 21st, 1840, proclamations were issued by Captain Hobson in the name of Her Majesty declaring her sovereign rights over the Islands by virtue of the Treaty of Waitangi. Thus, some seventy years after Cook had, during his first voyage, claimed possession of New Zealand in the name of His Majesty George III, did the islands which he had circumnavigated become in reality part of the British dominions.

Notwithstanding, however, that Hobson had issued the proclamation of sovereignty over the South Island, the British flag was not hoisted there at the same time. It was only through some words incautiously dropped by the Captain of the French frigate, "L'Aube," that the Lieutenant-Governor became aware of the intention of the French to hoist their national flag there.

Hobson took immediate steps to prevent any possible question arising as to British rights in the south by at once sending off H.M.S. "Britomart," commanded by Captain Stanley, R.N., to hoist the British flag. The "Britomart" was able to successfully accomplish her mission by arriving at Akaroa a few days before the French man-of-war arrived there. By this prompt action of the Lieutenant-Governor the British rights of sovereignty

TREATY OF WAITANGI DISCUSSED

over the whole of New Zealand were clearly established.

In November, 1840, New Zealand was formally separated by the Crown from the colony of New South Wales and became in itself a distinct part of the British dominions.

Much discussion has arisen from time to time about the Treaty of Waitangi in regard to its fairness to the Maori. It has been said that the native possessors of the land could not have understood a treaty which had been put before them in a hasty manner. Possibly it may be the case that they did not fully grasp the whole of the meaning of the various terms embraced in the document which they were asked to sign. They had, however, been thoroughly informed by the missionaries that they were not losing their land by it, and that they would be under the rule of a great sovereign who granted them her protection equally with all the other peoples who were her subjects.

The Maori, owing to their contact with Europeans, must have been perfectly well aware that they were not going to be allowed to quietly retain the country for themselves. The position in which they were situated was one which laid them open to having their lands taken from them gradually by the adventurers already with them, if even their country were not seized by some power which would not have troubled to make any treaty at all.

CHAPTER III

BOUNDARIES AND AREA

ADDITION of the Cook group and other Pacific islands to the Dominion—Acreage—Attempt to colonize Sunday Island—Description of annexed islands.

ACCORDING to the proclamation of January 30th, 1840, issued by Captain Hobson, R.N. (the first Governor), the boundaries of the then colony were the following degrees of latitude and longitude, viz., on the north, lat. $34^{\circ} 30'$ S. ; on the south, lat. $47^{\circ} 10'$ S. ; on the east, long. 179° E. ; and on the west, long. $166^{\circ} 5'$ E. By Royal Letters Patent in 1842, and by an Act of the Imperial Parliament in 1863, the boundaries of the colony were altered to embrace an area between 33° and 53° south lat. and between 162° east long. and 173° west long., thus embracing the Chatham, Auckland, Campbell, Antipodes, and Bounty Islands. On June 21st, 1887, the Kermadec Islands, which are between 29° and 32° south lat. and 177° and 180° west long., were by proclamation annexed to and became part of New Zealand.

In June, 1901, by proclamation a further addition was made to New Zealand by which the Cook group and other Pacific islands and territories comprised within certain boundaries, were included, making a somewhat irregular figure.

These boundaries are shown in official documents to be as follows :—From a point at the intersection of the twenty-third degree of south latitude and the one hundred and sixth degree of west longitude due north to the intersection of the eighth degree of south latitude, and the one hundred and fifty-sixth degree of west longitude; then due west to the point of intersection

PROCLAMATION OF NEW TITLE

of the eighth degree of south latitude and the hundred and sixty-seventh degree of west longitude ; then due south to the point of intersection of the seventeenth degree of south latitude and the hundred and sixty-seventh degree of west longitude ; then due west to the point of intersection of the seventeenth degree of south latitude and the hundred and seventieth degree of west longitude ; then due south to the point of intersection of the twenty-third degree of south latitude and the hundred and seventieth degree of west longitude, and thence due east to the point of intersection of the twenty-third degree of south latitude and the hundred and fifty-sixth degree of west longitude.

It will thus be seen that the Dominion of New Zealand, to which dignity the colony was raised by Royal Proclamation on September 10th, 1907, consisted of territories lying within limits not absolutely continuous but within a series of more or less scattered boundaries.

The dominion has an area of 104,751 square miles, which is less than that of Great Britain and Ireland by 16,554 square miles, and is composed of the following islands, viz. :—

FIRSTLY

Those comprised within the boundaries laid down in 1863, namely ;—

The North Island. This, with its adjacent islets, has an area of 28,459,500 acres.

The Middle Island (generally spoken of as the “South Island”). This, with its adjacent islets, has an area of 37,456,000 acres.

Stewart Island. This, with its adjacent islets, has an area of 425,390 acres.

The Chatham Islands, situated 536 miles east, off nearly the centre of the Middle Island, have an area of 239,920 acres.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The Auckland Islands, about 200 miles south of Stewart's Island, have an area of 210,650 acres.

The Campbell Islands, some little distance to the south and east of the Auckland Islands, have an area of 45,440 acres.

The Antipodes Islands, to the north-east of Campbell Island, have an area of 12,960 acres.

The Bounty Islands, which are a small group of rocky islets, are north of Antipodes Islands and have an area of 3,300 acres.

SECONDLY

Islands annexed under the Royal Proclamation of 1887:

The Kermadec Islands, lying about 614 miles north-east of the Bay of Islands in the North Island, have an area of 8,208 acres.

THIRDLY

Islands annexed in 1901, and contained within the boundary lines prescribed by an Imperial order in Council and a New Zealand Proclamation dealing with the annexation:—

The Cook group of islands, and islands outside the said group. All these islands lie about north-east of the Bay of Islands, and contain areas as follows: the Cook Group, 150 square miles; the Islands outside the group, 130 square miles.

On Sunday Island, which is the principal one of the Kermadec Group, a family named Bell resided for many years. An ineffectual attempt was made to colonize it, and when the island was visited in 1900, relics of the colonization were found in fallen trees intermixed with tropical vegetation. Curtis Island is undoubtedly the summit of a volcano of which the centre of the island was evidently the crater. It would seem as if a portion of this had at some time been blown out, as boats can

COOK GROUP

row right inside. On landing the ground underfoot is found to be quite hot. The surf-bound Macaulay Island is only noticeable from the fact that it is the home of many wild goats, which are the progeny of half-a-dozen landed there by the New Zealand Government.

It is somewhat difficult to account for the real reason for the annexation of these islands, unless it be their close proximity to the main islands of the colony. Colonization is impossible.

When the naval Commander-in-Chief, at the time of the proposed annexation, was consulted as to whether he concurred in the proposal, he replied that he saw no objection, but that he could not conceive how anybody could either want to annex, or even go to, such a desolate spot. These islands are visited once a year by a New Zealand Government steamer.

The Cook Group, as well as the others included in the boundaries of 1901, had, for some time prior to their annexation, been under British protection, and under the jurisdiction of the Governor of New Zealand.

The British Resident was an ex-member of the New Zealand House of Representatives, but his administration was not successful. Troubles arose everywhere.

In 1898 Colonel Gudgeon, who had seen much service in the Maori wars and who had been Under-Secretary for Defence, and was at that time a Native Land Court Judge—a most suitable officer for the appointment—was sent to Rarotonga as British Resident. In 1899 the Governor (Lord Ranfurly) paid a visit to Rarotonga with great advantage to the colony and to the island. He inquired into and settled most of the grievances.

Rarotonga is a very fine specimen of the volcanic order of islands and is of considerable size and beauty. It attains a height of about 2,100 feet. It is well watered and the soil is generally fertile. There is a good road for

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

nearly the whole of the twenty-three miles of circumference, and a good building has been erected for the accommodation of visitors, who are expected when the tourist traffic, which is almost certain to arise, is fully developed.

The products are copra, cocoa-nuts, coffee, oranges, and bananas. Owing to the care with which large areas are being planted with the latter fruit, the amount exported is increasing very rapidly. The island, which is about 1,600 miles from Auckland, is visited monthly by a steamer of the Union Steamship Company of New Zealand, and at intervals by others, according to trade requirements.

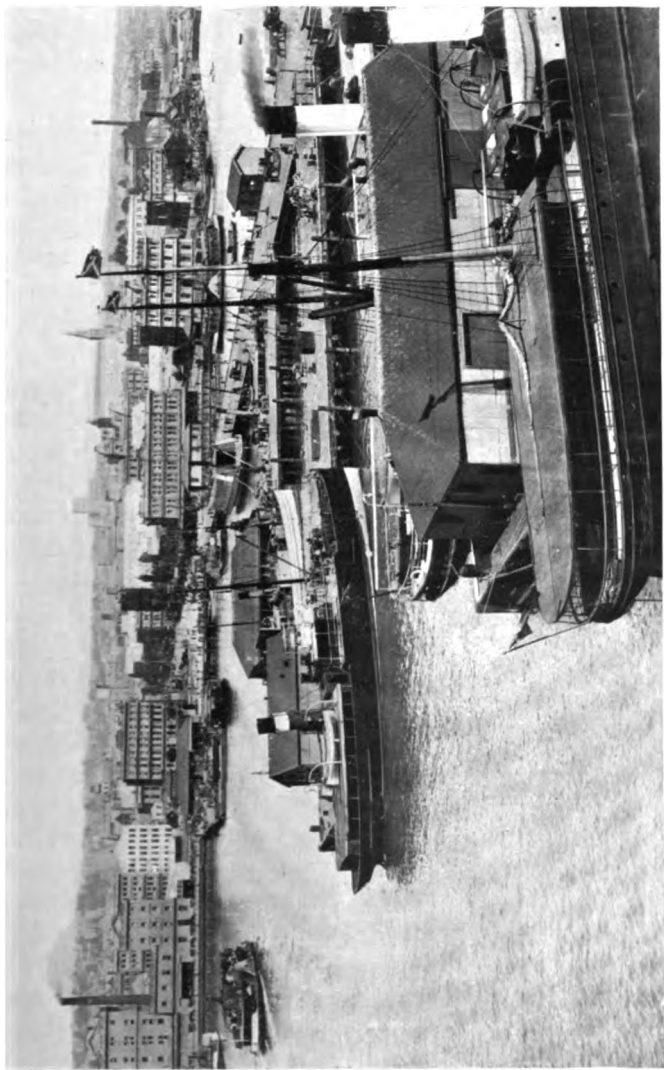
Niue, which is the largest of those annexed, is purely coral. It has an area of 100 square miles, a circumference by road of forty miles, and reaches an altitude of about 220 feet at its highest point.

Large areas are covered with forest, of which the timber is valuable and possibly may be made available for milling purposes. This, however, is somewhat doubtful. The great drawback on this island is want of water.

Mangaia is the second in size amongst the Cook Islands and is another specimen of volcanic formation. Its principal export is coffee of a very superior quality. These islands are swept by hurricanes about every eleven years.

Amongst the remaining islands composing the new territory, Suwarrow and Penrhyn need only be mentioned.

Suwarrow has a good harbour, with a depth of water at the entrance that will admit vessels drawing up to 20 feet. One of the small reef islets known as "Anchorage," is an Admiralty Reserve. Large quantities of valuable pearl-shell were at one time procured here, and it is anticipated that this will again be the case, when the shell-beds have had the rest they require.



WHARVES AND SHIPPING (AUCKLAND)

TERRITORIES RECENTLY ADDED

Penrhyn is a purely coral island, and is said to be the best in the Pacific for pearl-shell. In a lagoon in the interior there is an area of twenty-four square miles covered with the shell. The people were destroying the young oyster in their greed to discover pearls, but this has now been prevented by dividing the lagoon into three parts, which are alternately closed to fishing.

The annexation of these islands was carried out by Lord Ranfurly, the Governor of New Zealand in 1900, who went there in H.M.S. "Mildura" for that purpose. The most difficult part of the task was at Niue, where the King—Togia—could not see what was to be gained by annexation when the island was already under a protectorate. They were afraid that cession meant losing their lands. All was, however, satisfactorily explained, and the British flag was hoisted with the ceremony always observed on such occasions.

Penrhyn had already been annexed in 1888 by Captain Sir William Wiseman, Bart., in H.M.S. "Caroline," but the ceremony was repeated in 1900.

The revenue for Cook's Islands for 1906-7 was £9,840 7s. 4d., and the expenditure £6,416 6s. 6d., leaving a surplus of £3,424 0s. 10d.

The value of the exports from all these islands, except Niue, for 1906-7, was £45,925. The principal are copra, coffee, bananas, oranges, pine-apples, lime-juice and pearl-shell.

The imports during the same period amounted to £41,437.

From the island of Niue the exports were valued at £7,958.

The Auckland Islands are four: Enderby Island (in the north); Main Island; Adams or South Island (the two are separated from each other by Carnley Harbour, or Adams Straits); and Disappointment Island off the west coast of the Main Island.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Port Ross, at the north-east end of Main Island, was described by the French seaman D'Urville as one of the best harbours in the world, which was certainly an exaggeration. The port was named after the great explorer who anchored there in the forties with H.M. Ships "Terror" and "Erebus" on his voyage to the south. At the mouth of the harbour is a small islet called Shoe Island, described by Ross as a lump of magnetic ore. There are several harbours on the east coast. It is worthy of notice that all the harbours on these southern islands are on the east coast, as if shelter had been designed by Providence from the heavy westerly weather generally prevailing in these latitudes.

Carnley Harbour is in reality more correctly described as a strait, as there is an opening to the sea at its western end. This opening, however, is of no value whatever, as it is narrow with a swift current, and would be extremely difficult of navigation under even the most favourable circumstances.

Just off the southern end of this narrow opening is Monument Island, so called on account of its formation. The sight from the cliffs on the west end of Adams Island, during a heavy westerly gale with the seas breaking over Monument Island, is not only magnificent but shows that little value can be attached to this narrow western passage. The gnarled and distorted appearance of the trees, with their heads bowed to the east, shows how great is the force of the constant westerly winds.

The open land is, generally speaking, formed of huge blocks of soil covered with grass of a tussocky, or tufty, nature. Further evidence is afforded of the violence of the gales in this part of the world by the fact that areas of nearly a quarter of an acre of these blocks of earth are to be seen turned completely upside down.

In the north, at Port Ross, there was at one time a settlement from which great things were expected. The

OTHER OUTLYING ISLANDS

head of this community called himself the "Lieutenant-Governor"; but the difficulties encountered proved too great, and the undertaking was abandoned. Attempts have since been made at sheep farming, but it does not seem probable that they will be successful.

Campbell Island has two harbours, of which the largest is "Perseverance," about half-way down the east coast. This island is covered with tussocks like the open land of the Auckland Islands and, like it, is wind-swept. The cliffs on the northern side are forbidding in appearance, and the whole outlook on approaching this island is more dismal than in the case of the others. There is a large waterfall over the Northern Cliffs, but this, on the occasion of the writer visiting the island in 1894, was converted by the wind into a column of spray blown upwards into the air.

The Antipodes Islands have an almost continuous, bold, and precipitous coast. There is no harbour, but an anchorage is obtainable on the eastward side under certain conditions of weather. The principal island is composed of high undulating hills which are somewhat flattened towards the centre. The land is covered with the same sort of huge tussocks as the Auckland and Campbell Islands. The scenic effect of this island is far grander than it is in the others. The view in passing round it is both grand and impressive. The cliffs are of a deep chocolate colour, covered at their base with long trails of ribbon-like seaweed, or kelp. The latter rise and fall with the motion of the sea, which is of the most intense ultramarine colour. The combined effect is beautiful beyond description. Here may be seen a certain parakeet to be found nowhere else in the world. It is remarkable for the way in which it burrows in the tussocks in which it makes its home. The bird life in all these islands is extraordinary, as far as sea-birds are concerned.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The penguin, the albatross, the mollymawk, and many others are to be found here in thousands.

The Bounty Islands can only be described as a group of thirteen rocks which are generally sea and storm swept.

The Chatham Islands, which lie 536 miles to the eastward of Lyttelton, consist of two principal islands, and some small islets. The larger of the two contains 222,000 odd acres, of which 46,000 are occupied by a lagoon.

Pitt Island is separated from it by Pitt Strait. There is some forest, but the greater portion is covered with grass, some native, and some raised from British seed. Sheep farming is the industry on these islands. At one time they were occupied by the Morioris, a race of people from Polynesia, but they were decimated by the Maori, and none of the race now remain. Some hieroglyphics are to be found carved on a sandstone cliff near the centre of the main island, but by whom it is unknown. Neither the Morioris nor the Maori can give any account of these carvings.

Steamers from Lyttelton visit the Chathams about every six weeks during the winter. In the summer there is practically a weekly service.

Owing to the many shipwrecks which had taken place on the desolate islands to the south, and to the fact that a long time might elapse without castaways being discovered, the Government decided on having them regularly visited. They have also for some years past maintained depôts on them for the use of shipwrecked mariners. These depôts are huts containing food, clothing, medicine, tools, and other stores of use to those who may have unfortunately been cast away.

On the Auckland Islands three lifeboats are kept in places where they are most likely to be found useful.

DEPÔTS FOR WRECKED MARINERS

On the Kermadecs and Three Kings in the north depôts are also maintained. Finger-posts are erected on all the islands, with the words "To the Depôt," in order that shipwrecked sailors may be guided to where they can obtain all that has been provided for their comfort. On one occasion, sad to relate, owing to want of ordinary courage and enterprise, eleven men of the "Spirit of the Dawn," which was wrecked on the Antipodes Islands, remained for eighty-eight days on the beach without making any attempt to climb up the sloping height above them to see what there was on the island. They were discovered by the Government steamer "Hinemoa" on one of her periodical visits. The captain of the steamer walked over to them from the landing place on the other side of the island in about three-quarters of an hour and told them how they were starving in the midst of plenty. The only answer they could give was that one of their number had managed to climb up part of the way, but had been greeted with the sound of wild beasts roaring, and had gone back to his shipmates. The only sound that he could have heard was the lowing of one of the cows liberated on the island, or the bellowing of the bull that was there to keep them company.

Sheep and goats have also been landed on these islands and have increased in number. The guns and ammunition in the depôts provide the means of slaughter.

The Government steamers visit the southern islands twice a year, when they overhaul the depôts, renew the stores when necessary, and search diligently for castaways.

The islands are visited in the intervals by one of H.M. ships, and thus as much as possible is done to help those who may have been shipwrecked.

The northern islands are visited once a year by the Government steamers and perform the same service.

CHAPTER IV

EARLY COLONIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT

TROUBLES with the Maori—Missionary enterprise—Whale-fishing—Attempts at colonization—Forming of settlements—The New Zealand Land Company the first true settlers—The Wairau massacre—Trouble with the Maori—Appointment of Captain Grey—Uncertainty of Government as to best method of controlling the colony.

FROM time to time during the latter part of the eighteenth century and the early years of the nineteenth century traders, whalers, and others came to New Zealand and established a community in the Bay of Islands, in the North Island. The port of Sydney seems to have been the spot from which most of these people came, attracted doubtless by the stories which had reached them from previous visitors.

That no descent of the same nature had hitherto been made seems somewhat difficult to understand. The colony of New South Wales had been established for some time, and adventurous spirits had never been found lacking among British seamen. The distance between Sydney and the Bay of Islands was only between 1,100 and 1,200 miles, and although the sea that separates them is frequently stormy, it had not as great dangers as many others.

The accounts that various writers give of the class of people who came over to New Zealand at that time, including runaway convicts, supply evidence that the community was not likely to be a well-ordered one, or one that would readily submit to control. It was, indeed, asking people who were in many cases almost the scum of the earth, to submit to what they had always been seeking to avoid. As there was no one who could exercise

MAORI AND EUROPEAN TRADERS

any control over them the only possible result followed.

Troubles at once arose with the Maori. Trade had commenced between the two races, and the articles of barter that were brought into the country by the white people were not those likely to benefit the natives. Guns, ammunition, and rum seem to have been the principal items of the goods imported for trade purposes. In exchange for these were offered curious weapons, food, flax fibre, native mats, and various other things likely, from their rareness at the time, to be very saleable in Sydney. The trade was not, however, confined altogether within such small bounds. There was a considerable amount of timber, very suitable for masts and spars, which was available and anxiously sought after. A trade in native heads sprang up, not because the immediate traders themselves wanted them, but on account of the high prices given for them by European collectors of curiosities. In a country where life was held very cheap a supply could readily be furnished.

Missionary effort was at last the method by which this trade was abolished. From representations made to him by the missionaries, the Governor of New South Wales took steps at once to put a stop to it by issuing a proclamation imposing a heavy fine on any one convicted of trading in heads, with the additional penalty of exposure of the offender's name. It was none too soon that this disgusting trade was done away with, one in which the European connoisseurs shared the disgrace with the actual buyers. The influence of the missionaries is said also to have been the means of abolishing the art of tattooing. For this they do not seem to have had the same justification, but there can be no doubt that they were the earliest pioneers of real civilization. They were called to the country by the accounts received from time to time of the deplorable moral condition of the bulk

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

of the white population, and of the bad influence they were exercising over the Maori—an influence that was as disgraceful to those who exercised it as it was disastrous to the natives.

It undoubtedly may be asserted that the advent of the missionaries to the shores of New Zealand paved the way for the settlement and colonization of that country.

The first of these to arrive were two laymen, Hall and Kendall, who were sent over to New Zealand by the Rev. Samuel Marsden in a vessel purchased by himself on account of the impossibility of getting one in any other way.

This was due to the foul massacre of almost all on board the "Boyd" in revenge for the cruel flogging of a Maori named Tawa, who, with other Maori, was working his passage from Sydney to England in the vessel. The "Boyd" called at New Zealand to get some spars on her way. Tawa told his countrymen of what he had suffered, and showed them the scars. The tribe to which he belonged determined to have revenge for this insult to one of their kinsmen. They laid their plans skilfully and with extreme treachery, and murdered nearly all on board. The crews of the whaling vessels in the Bay of Islands, driven almost to frenzy by this brutal murder, determined to take full retribution. Wrongly informed that the chief Te Pahi, who had helped to rescue a woman and two children, had taken a prominent part in the massacre, they destroyed his village and everything else they could. They also killed many men, women, and children.

The two missionaries, after a stay of five years, returned to Sydney in 1814 accompanied by two natives, of whom one Hongi afterwards made himself notorious in savage warfare. In that year Marsden himself went to New Zealand accompanied by Kendall, Hall, and another named King, who took their families with them. Some mechanics also went with the party. The ship took over

MAORI AND THE MISSIONARIES

cattle, horses, agricultural implements and goods for barter.

Marsden's scheme was comprehensive. He laid down a special line of work for each of his colleagues. His idea was to promote the industries of civilization at the same time as he preached Christianity. Marsden's first work in New Zealand was that of endeavouring to make peace between some rival tribes then at war, and in this he was successful. During the seven visits he made to New Zealand his influence for good over the Maori was enormous.

In 1819 the Church of England missionaries were increased in number.

In 1822 the Rev. Samuel Leigh arrived to take up work on behalf of the Wesleyans, and founded a station which was destroyed five years afterwards. It was subsequently rebuilt and the Wesleyan Mission was continued with redoubled energy.

In 1838 the French Roman Catholic Bishop Pompallier arrived at Hokianga in the north with several priests.

In 1842 Bishop Selwyn arrived in the colony. This remarkable man gained a great influence over the Maori, and won the esteem of the white population. He was twenty-seven years in the colony, and during that time visited every part of it and established an enduring reputation for zeal and energy. It might, perhaps, have been better had he confined his energies to purely missionary work. The names of the two brothers Williams, Henry and William, will long be remembered for their efforts in the missionary cause. A German Mission was established in the Chatham Islands in 1846.

There was apparently the greatest good feeling between the representatives of the various creeds until the arrival of the French. The early years of missionary effort in New Zealand were not crowned with great success from a spiritual point of view. The Maori, however, were

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

keenly alive to the material advantage they gained by the teaching they received. Trade in land began to spring up very early and was the principal cause of the troubles that afterwards arose. It was not likely that with the Maori anxious to sell anything, not only what he possessed, but also what he could get anywhere, and with the class of people prepared to buy, things would go smoothly. It was also not at all probable that in dealing with savage tribes other causes of trouble would not arise. The Maori had his own custom of dealing with what he considered insults to be avenged or rights to be obtained. Killing was to him the simplest way of settling the matter. The white man was not so accustomed to this rough and ready mode of settling things, but finding that he must to a certain extent adopt the same plan, he entered into the fighting arena with considerable zest and skill.

There also appeared at this time men who were called "Pakeha Maori," foreigners who had become Maorified. They were Europeans who had probably stayed in the country when visits had been made by ships in earlier days. Some no doubt came at the time when trade began to spring up between Sydney and New Zealand. At all events, they went to live amongst the tribes. They were not, as can easily be imagined from the fact of their having left their own race to live among savages, a very reputable body. They had, however, their use. With their knowledge of a certain class of European customs, as well as of Maori ways, they were useful as go-betweens in the trade springing up. The Maori made much of them in every way.

The whalers who had been attracted to the waters by the reported presence of a large number of whales had in the meantime commenced a very remunerative trade, and established whaling stations at different places in both islands. Whale oil and whalebone fetched good

THE PAKEHA MAORI ARRIVE

prices and the whaling was carried on both from the ships in the ordinary way and by whale boats from the shore stations. The money for these establishments was found by the merchants in New South Wales who had recognized the importance of the trade and the riches they would probably obtain from it.

The whaling might have lasted for many years longer than it did had not every "fish," young or old, that could possibly be taken been harpooned and "tried down." The crews of whaling vessels were made up of men who were well known to be of a very rough class, to say the least of it. They could and did teach the Maori a great deal that was useful and made good boatmen and sailors of them, but they also did much to prevent them from becoming really civilized.

During this period the missionaries were patiently working amongst the natives, spreading the cause of Christianity and trying by their teaching and personal example to lead the people to abandon their savage life.

Thus various influences prepared the native inhabitants for the great change that was before long to come in regard to their position and relationship to the outer world.

The first attempt at colonization was made in 1825, when a company was formed in England to purchase land and settle people in the northern part of the North Island. Nothing came of this adventure except the purchase of a tract of land near Hokianga and a long voyage by the intending colonists. These adventurers found on their arrival that everything did not appear in the same light as in the mental sketch they had made before leaving England. The inhabitants of the land they came to were savages who indulged in practices leading the new comers to see that all would not go as smoothly as they expected. This, together with many other

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

difficulties which arose, made most of them think that it was better to make the first loss the least loss, and to try colonizing experiments under easier circumstances.

The English Government of the time was not favourable to the annexation of New Zealand. Aided as it was in this determination by the advice of the Church Missionary Society, nothing was done and opposition was shown to all schemes propounded.

Edward Gibbon Wakefield, who may be called the great colonizer of his day, was however determined that the hand of the Government should be forced, and that the scheme of colonization which was being worked out in his brain should be a real living thing. He wanted to establish a fresh field for commerce and enterprise, and was determined to do so in the form which he considered would be of benefit both to England and New Zealand. He did it in the manner which seemed calculated to give the best results, and whatever may have been the faults of his scheme, he settled in the country the people who laid the foundation upon which New Zealand's present prosperity has been built. Amongst other things to be recorded to the credit of the great originator of this colonization scheme is the fact that, largely through his influence, New Zealand was saved from being turned into a convict settlement.

In 1837 "The New Zealand Association," of which he was the leading spirit, was formed to give effect to his scheme, but the difficulties placed in the way by the English Government, owing principally to the opposition of the missionaries, proved too strong and nothing came of the proposal at the time.

In 1839, however, the Association became the "New Zealand Land Company," and although the directors were baffled on many occasions in the same way as the moving spirits of its predecessors, they determined to carry out their plans. This necessitated their proceeding

THE GREAT COLONIZER

with colonization in what was practically a foreign country.

In May, 1839, the "Tory" was despatched as the first of the ships of the New Zealand Land Company, and in her sailed Colonel William Wakefield. On August 15th she arrived at Queen Charlotte's Sound, and shortly afterwards, September 20th, proceeded to Port Nicholson which had been recommended by the Directors of the company as the most suitable place for founding a settlement. Colonel Wakefield at once commenced bargaining with the Maori for land and ultimately purchased a large quantity which, according to his own account, amounted to about twenty million acres.

The company had meanwhile been carrying out its plans in England for bringing together a body of people selected on account of their fitness for this great undertaking. These became, under its auspices, the first true settlers in the country and in September, 1839, the first detachment sailed for Port Nicholson, where they arrived in January, 1840. The first settlement was made at Petone, which has an open beach directly facing the entrance to the harbour and exposed not only to the full force of the heavy gales which blow from the southward but also to the accompanying heavy sea. In fact, no worse position could well have been found. Shortly afterwards the settlement was shifted to the spot where the city of Wellington now stands.

Other settlements soon followed. Wanganui, about four miles from the mouth of the river of that name, on the west coast of the North Island, was founded in 1840. In 1841 a settlement was made at Taranaki, on the same coast, with a town named New Plymouth as capital. In the same year, 1841, the company founded Nelson at the northern end of the South Island. In 1847 and 1850 respectively were founded in the South Island the settlements of Otago and Canterbury through the medium

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

of, but not directly by, the New Zealand Land Company.

The question as to whether the directors of the company were actuated by a desire to promote colonization, or by a motive of gain alone, is one which has been very fully discussed by historians of New Zealand, and the opinions of statesmen of that colony, as well as those of colonists, have differed considerably. It must be said, in fairness to the company, that although many of the steps that they took were not such as, with the light of present knowledge of the country and its natives, would now be taken or tolerated, yet they set on foot a system of colonization which has been of enormous benefit not to the dominion alone but to the empire generally. It must be remembered that the New Zealand Association was formed with the idea of simply colonizing a new country. It must also be borne in mind that the change to the New Zealand Land Company and its formation as a joint stock company was forced upon the promoters by the action of the English Government.

The troubles that arose from the transactions in land between the natives and Europeans were continual, and led to complications which it took many years to settle satisfactorily. Massacres and wars followed the early transactions and also those of later times.

No other result could be expected. The original owners looked upon the new arrivals as interlopers; the latter, in their turn, looked upon the natives as people who had no right to sole possession of the entire country. In fact, all Europeans practically considered that a savage race had no justification for being in possession of a rich and fertile country which was wanted by white people.

The purchases of land by the New Zealand Company have often been spoken of as having been carried beyond all bounds of fair dealing. It does not seem that such was the case, however.



WANGANUI RIVER

ANNEXATION BECOMES NECESSARY

The company undoubtedly did not give the natives large prices for the land they bought, or claimed to have bought. Goods to the amount of about £9,000 which consisted principally of trade-muskets and guns, tobacco, and many other things that are always enticing to savage tribes, were given for the purchase of an enormous territory which the chiefs sold to the company.

The chiefs knew perfectly well that, according to the Maori laws and customs, they were not entitled to sell the land belonging to their tribes. Trade, however, was trade, and here were things offered to them that they were longing to have, and there was the land which to a great extent was left unused by them, and which they could pass over to the white people in exchange.

Land-grabbing was not confined to the company altogether. Before the settlers of the company came there had been traffic in land of very much the same nature. Even some of the missionaries had dealt in land, and had given what could not be called extravagant sums for it. Deeds had been brought over from Sydney, containing all the usual legal wording and paraphernalia by which land could be conveyed from the natives to the Europeans. What could the natives understand of the documents? Nothing.

The home government eventually saw that annexation was inevitable, and they sent over Captain Hobson, R.N., to make the first move. Until his arrival in New Zealand, which almost coincided with the arrival of the colonists in the south, the Bay of Islands had been practically the centre of everything as far as white settlement was concerned, and he naturally went there. Afterwards he went further south and established the seat of government at Auckland, in a part of the country much belauded by Cook.

The Governor issued a proclamation that he would not recognize the purchases of land made by the New Zealand

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Company. This not only put the settlers in an awkward position but naturally irritated them greatly.

Difficulties arose between the colonists and the natives. The latter were themselves already quarrelling with one another over their respective rights in the land that had been sold.

The Governor, owing to reports received by him, sent down his Colonial Secretary to put down what was considered an act of insubordination. The southern settlers had had the wisdom to take steps to protect themselves. In the form in which they had done this they exceeded their rights. They had set up a provisional government. There could not be two governments, and the official one did not seem to them to have any inclination to help them. Undoubtedly, if the Governor had at once gone down and made the seat of government in Cook's Straits, it would have been better for the country. He had, however, more than one issue to deal with.

The original place of white settlement, as has already been said, was in the north, and more was known about that part than any other. The missionaries were not in favour of the company and they were able to sway the Governor's movements to a considerable extent. The land question being the principal matter in dispute, and that which had to be dealt with as soon as possible, if real peace and settlement were to be arrived at, it was necessary to have someone with power to deal with the matter. A commissioner was accordingly sent out from England after considerable delay. He, assisted by two other land commissioners, commenced inquiries, and after a time decisions were given which made some people sanguine that an end to the matter was approaching. This did not however, arrive until after many years had passed.

Captain Hobson died in office from paralysis which seized him not long after his arrival in New Zealand. One can, therefore, when considering his actions, only

HOBSON AND THE SETTLERS

feel surprise that his judgment was not more hampered by the mental suffering inseparable from the knowledge of the fatal character of his disease.

When one considers that Captain Hobson came into a country where the natives were savages, and where the European population was described as being absolutely lawless, indeed almost the scum of the earth, it seems marvellous that he should have been able to accomplish as much as he did during the time he held office.

Hobson's instructions from the home government were, from ignorance of the situation, quite inapplicable and he was told to carry out certain things practically impossible. That his actions were, at all events, highly appreciated by the natives is shown by the fact that when he died, and a Maori chief was asking Her Majesty to appoint a new Governor, his expression was "Let him be a good man like the Governor who has just died."

After Hobson's death, in 1842, the government was administered for a time by Lieutenant Shortland, R.N., who had formerly been first lieutenant of a ship Hobson commanded. During his term of office there took place what is known as the "Wairau Massacre," which resulted in the death of twenty-two Europeans. Captain Wakefield, the company's agent in Nelson, who had been much irritated by the delays in dealing with the lands in his district, determined to bring things to a head. Two celebrated Maori chiefs, Te Rauparaha and Rangihaeata, denied that they had sold certain land which the company said they had.

The chiefs based their title on the old Maori custom of right by conquest, and when the surveyors commenced to do their work they drove them off the land and burned down the huts they lived in. Wakefield then determined to arrest them on a charge of arson and, having obtained the necessary warrant, went out with the Nelson police magistrate and a party to do so. After a scuffle the

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

natives fired upon the settlers who, surprised by the attack, could not be induced to stand their ground notwithstanding the entreaties of their leader. Wakefield gave himself up with eight others to Rauparaha, but Rangihaeata, who had another feud to settle with the English, butchered all of them.

It can be imagined how serious was the loss of prestige to the Europeans. Nothing was done to show the Maori that the English power was strong enough to inflict heavy punishment on them for their brutality.

There were some Englishmen who espoused the cause of the other side, and held that right was on the side of the Chiefs, and that their own countrymen were the aggressors. The Acting-Governor was, moreover, hampered with the debts handed down to him and all the other troubles which had harried his predecessor. He had not enough money to carry out the work of government; he could not borrow it, and the English Government would not give him any.

Perhaps Lieutenant Shortland had not the qualities necessary for his position but he received no support from anyone. His successor, Captain Robert Fitzroy, R.N., arrived in December, 1843, as Governor, and found that he had tumbled into a hornet's nest. He landed only to receive reports of dissatisfaction and unrest from every part of the colony occupied by Europeans. The natives, no doubt emboldened by their success in the Wairau, were everywhere inclined to be insolent and hostile.

There were no troops, and there was not any money. Fitzroy found fault with everyone and insulted many, including his predecessor. He tried to butter up the natives by telling them that they were right as regards the miserable occurrence in the Wairau. He sowed the seeds of discontent in regard to the actions of the Government, and of hostility towards the natives, by his decisions

A BLOW TO BRITISH PRESTIGE

in an important land question in Taranaki. He made regulations in regard to the prominent question of purchase of land from the Maori, and cancelled them as soon as he had made them. He took the advice of those who urged him to temporize with the Maori. In fact, he seems to have done everything that would cause confusion.

The Maori were quite well aware that they now had matters practically in their own hands and they took full advantage of the position. Lastly, Fitzroy got into a war with the natives which did not end until a year after he had left the country. This was commenced by Hone Heke cutting down the flagstaff on which the English flag was flying at Kororareka and plundering the place. Some of the natives of Heke's tribe were friendly to the English and a sort of peace was temporarily patched up. It did not last long, for the flagstaff was again cut down. It was re-erected and was thought to be sufficiently guarded by a blockhouse and party of bluejackets from H.M.S. "Hazard," then lying in the bay, and some soldiers. It was not! Heke again attacked the town and cut down the flagstaff. Some fierce fighting took place in which Captain Robertson, of H.M.S. "Hazard," and Lieutenant Philpotts, of the same ship, behaved with great courage, the former being badly wounded. The town of Kororareka was burnt. This was again a great blow to British prestige. Worse was in store.

Troops arrived from Sydney and it was determined to follow Heke up, and make an end of the matter. The English were, however, badly beaten in attacks on two paha, Okaihau and Ohaewai. Before the attack on the latter was made artillery had been procured from Sydney, but even that made no difference. The Maori were naturally triumphant and thought, not without reason, that they were a superior race to the English. As if to

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

strengthen the grounds they already had for this, namely, having beaten the English, the Governor attempted to make peace with them. This sort of weakness was fully calculated to make the Maori treat the English with contempt.

By this time the home government had made up their minds that they must try another governor ; so Captain Fitzroy was re-called. Captain Grey, who afterwards became Sir George Grey and was then Governor of South Australia, was selected for the position. He was an energetic and capable man who had the reputation of having accomplished great things in the colony he was leaving. He was also a man of great determination and courage.

Grey was more lucky than his predecessor, for he was supplied with both troops and money. He resumed the pre-emptive right of the Crown over the native lands which had been weakly abandoned by Fitzroy when in straits for money. He knew that war and settlement could not go on at the same time. He did the wise thing at once in prohibiting the sale of firearms to the natives, and in breaking off all negotiations with the chiefs who had commenced the late war, and who, owing to their previous successes, considered themselves masters of the situation.

Having made up his mind that the war must be ended, and the mastery of the Europeans asserted, he decided to do so at once. Taking with him a strong force of sailors and soldiers under the command of Colonel Despard, who had fought in the before-mentioned engagements, and accompanied by a strong force of friendly natives, he attacked a pah belonging to Kawiti, the ally and fellow-insurgent of Heke. Having once commenced he did not leave off until he had done what he came for, and after some days' fighting he took the pah, with but small loss.

BRITISH POWER RE-ASSERTED

This ended the war and showed the natives that they were not invincible. The Chief Rangihaeata, of Wairau fame, had been creating disturbances around the Cook Straits settlements. The Governor determined to put an end to this trouble also. It took longer to do this than it had to finish matters in the north. The area of disturbance was larger, and the troops had to be kept continually on the move through bush and other difficult country. The Governor, however, had laid his plans well, and drove the Maori into districts where they could get but little to eat. Empty stomachs had much to do with ending the campaign.

The Governor, feeling sure that Rangihaeata's old friend and ally, Te Rauparaha, was advising and helping as much as he could those actively employed in these disturbances, determined to put it out of his power to do so. He captured Rauparaha by a clever ruse, and kept him where he could do no harm. Shortly after this native wars ceased for many years, with the exception of a quickly-ended trouble on the south-west coast of the north island at Wanganui.

The Governor was made a K.C.B. for his successful conduct of the operations just described, an honour well deserved.

It can be imagined with what relief the home government greeted the news of the successes achieved. It was a pleasant contrast to the tale of unfortunate occurrences that had previously reached them.

Sir George Grey now settled himself down to deal with other matters than war, but which were of equal, if not greater, importance. He endeavoured to make both natives and white people alike see that the best thing for the country was peace, and that they should work together to promote the well-being of the land they lived in. This was a difficult task, as it could not be expected that the Maori would quietly accept the position that

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

they were to be only a part of the system regulating the management of the islands instead of having the complete control as they had prior to the arrival of the British.

The white people also had their grievances, many of them substantial ones, and these they brought before the Governor at every opportunity, and in the most forcible manner they could. They for their part could not understand why those who had come to New Zealand, because of the country being annexed by their sovereign, should not have the greater rights of the two races. The Governor listened to the troubles of both sides, and by his tact and firmness met with great success on the whole. Amongst other things, he employed both natives and soldiers in making roads. These were of distinct advantage in settling the country, as not only did they enable the white people to spread out and to have good means of communication between their farms and hamlets, but they also permitted the more rapid movement of troops.

Native hospitals were established and the Maori were encouraged to become civilized and to follow European ways. Sir George also interested himself very much in the South Island settlements of Otago and Canterbury, and infused into the whole community a desire to push forward rapidly and judiciously the settlement of the country. He had able helpers in carrying out the work he had planned. The Chief Justice, Sir William Marten, the Attorney-General, Mr. William Swainson, and Bishop Selwyn, the first Bishop of New Zealand, were men of capacity and power.

In 1846 Earl Grey had passed an act through the English Parliament to provide for further government in New Zealand. Sir George Grey prevented its adoption in its entirety in that country. The authorities at home seemed unable to make up their minds as to which way they should govern the colony. At one time the natives

CONSTITUTION GRANTED

were to be disregarded as being only savages, at another they were to be treated as fellow-countrymen.

Some of the most influential men in New Zealand, including the Chief Justice and the Bishop, were among those most opposed to certain points in Earl Grey's charter, on the ground of their being unjust to the natives. At all events, that portion of it which granted representative institutions was suspended by Imperial Statute in March, 1848.

In the meantime Sir George Grey had been sworn in as Governor-in-Chief of the Islands, and as Governor of the Provinces of New Ulster and New Munster, which had been formed under the charter. A Lieutenant-Governor was also appointed to each province. This all came to an end in 1853 when the Constitution, which is dealt with in another chapter, was granted to the colony as it then was.

During Sir George Grey's governorship the Colonial Office set themselves to work to placate the New Zealand Land Company for the hostility previously shown to it. Wiser councils would have prevented such having ever been the case. Much money would have been saved, ill-feeling prevented, and colonization would have progressed rapidly.

In 1853 Sir George Grey assumed the office of "Governor of the Colony of New Zealand" after the passing of the Constitution Act, and at the end of that year he left the colony. He returned, however, in 1861.

The termination of Sir George Grey's first period of office seems to be a convenient point at which to close the account of what may be termed the first period of the development of New Zealand. The initial difficulties of founding the colony had been practically overcome, colonization was going on smoothly, the early wars with the natives had ended, and the colony had representative government.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Judged by the standard of the present day it might be said that the first three governors failed as administrators. It is only fair, however, to take into account when passing judgment on their actions, how extremely difficult were the circumstances by which they were surrounded. The home government was both indifferent and ignorant, and so was the British public generally. The Europeans in the country they were called upon to govern were, with few exceptions, ready to prey upon the natives and were averse to law. The Maori, who were cannibals and savages, belonged to various tribes, each with its own leaders. There was no great head over all with whom the Governor could negotiate.

The missionaries were inclined, on the whole, to take the part of the natives. In fact, they wished to Christianize the people of the country and form them into an independent nation. Their utopian idea was impossible of realization.

The Governors had but few men of high capacity and large administrative experience with whom to confer. When one fairly considers all the difficulties which they had to contend with, we should be slow to condemn their conduct of affairs too harshly.

Before he entered on office in New Zealand Sir George Grey had had the experience of administering another colony. This was now most valuable. He had the good fortune to follow, in New Zealand, those on whom the task had fallen of establishing the ground-work of government. He had also been placed in a better position than his predecessors as regards power, soldiers, and money. Furthermore, he had not the unpleasant experience of missionaries interfering in matters which did not come within the scope of their proper functions.

CHAPTER V

THE MAORI RACE

ORIGIN of the Maori race—The Maori religion—Physical qualities—Clothing—Occupation—Characteristic traits—Numbers.

WHEN Captain Cook was writing in his journal about the natives of New Zealand, he used the following words :—

“ The language spoken by both the South Sea Islanders and the New Zealanders is sufficient proof that they have one origin or source, but where this is even time perhaps may never discover.”

This forecast of the position was not very wide of the mark.

It is perfectly true that the researches of diligent students into the question of origin of the Maori people have given us in their writings much interesting information on the subject, and undoubtedly have proved that the Maori are a branch of the Polynesian race.

The actual position of the spot whence they started for New Zealand does not seem to have been so clearly established. The Maori say that they came from Hawaiki, and Mr. Percy Smith in his book *Hawaiki, the Original Home of the Maori*, gives it as his opinion, after very close and painstaking search into the matter, that the Hawaiki of the Maori is the area comprising all the groups of islands round Tahiti.

If one bears in mind that everything connected with the early history of the Maori race rests on no more solid foundation than tradition, one can realize the difficulty of fixing absolutely the place from which those started who first landed in New Zealand.

The Maori set great store on their “genealogies,” which they have taken the utmost pains to transmit by

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

word of mouth ; but, while one marvels at the elaboration of detail and expresses one's admiration of the way in which these traditions have been handed down from generation to generation, one must not be betrayed into too much confidence as to their reliability from the point of view of the historian.

Taking then their traditions as the source of information from which the early wanderings of the Maori can be traced, it may be stated that the Maori came over to New Zealand in seven or eight canoes, about the year 1350, and it is said that the axes used in building them were made out of greenstone brought from New Zealand by a canoe in which a previous voyage had been made to that country.

From those who came over in these canoes, which were double-decked, sprang the race of natives which was found by Cook on his visits to New Zealand. The Maori went to the North Island, on their arrival, and have almost entirely remained there. The native population in the South Island, Stewart's Island, and the Chatham Islands even now only amounts to about 3,000.

The Maori found, it is said, a race of people in occupation of the islands when they arrived and, being determined to assert their own right of possession, practically exterminated them. There is, however, a tribe still in the north, in the Urewera country, claiming to be directly descended from the original occupants. The result of the struggle was the usual one—the more powerful race prevailed.

That they were sailors and navigators is shown by the fact that, wherever they came from, they must have crossed many miles of ocean in their canoes on their voyage to New Zealand and were very accurate in making the land when approaching that country. No accidental stroke of fortune could have ensured such success. It must have been the outcome of some study of the laws of nature.

MAORI TRADITIONS

A Maori clergyman, the Rev. Wiki Te Paa, writing recently to a New Zealand journal on the subject of the departure of the Maori from Polynesia, said that he attributed it to their having come to the conclusion from the movements of certain birds that there must be land in the direction towards which the latter took their flight. These birds, the godwits, annually reach New Zealand from Siberia, and are said to pass over Tahiti on their way. The writer of the letter says that the Maori, having once made up their minds that these birds were going south to some unknown land, decided to take them as their guides and started on a voyage of discovery which took them to New Zealand.

Other Maori do not accept this idea, as they one and all cling to the belief that the spirits furnished the reason for their departure from Hawaiki. It seems quite likely, however, that the Maori, who are great observers of nature, decided from the regular movements of these birds on their own migration to southern lands.

The Maori mythology is based upon a legend which in certain ways is extraordinarily similar to the account given of the creation of the world in the book of Genesis. The stages of development of the various parts of creation occupied periods of time, the length of which is as difficult for us to estimate as the length of a "day" in the Pentateuch. Step by step things proceeded in the progress of creation. There is, however, this great difference between the two accounts, the Maori believes that more than one deity took part in the formation of the various elements.

For example, Light, according to Maori mythology, was evolved by a forced separation of Rangi (Heaven) and Papa (Earth), a god and goddess who through all preceding ages had been united, their children meanwhile being compelled to dwell in darkness. This separation was accomplished by Tane (god of forests and birds), who

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

exerted his supernatural force to effect the evolution of Light and Darkness, both of which were an absolute necessity for those over whom he presided.

The history of the relations between men and the Supreme is also strikingly different inasmuch as the Maori gods exhibited human passions like those of the ancient Greeks and Romans.

Their religion was that of the worship of the spirits of the Good Departed, and they attributed to their priests the power of holding communication with the occupants of the higher spirit world. They believe in various gradations of rewards for the souls of the departed, the spirits of chiefs and priests going into everlasting light in the midst of the sky, while those of common men are doomed to everlasting darkness in the depths of the sea. They do not believe in the resurrection of the body or punishment in an after life, considering that the retribution for a man's evil deeds fall upon him during his life on earth.

The Maori are, physically, a very fine race, well-built and muscular, the males being about the average height of Englishmen, namely 5 ft. 6½ in. Their skin is of a light brown colour, their cheek bones high, their noses straight with somewhat extended nostrils, lips thick, mouth wide disclosing very fine teeth, eyes very dark and penetrating, and hair generally black. They exhibit great excitement at times, both in discussions among themselves and also with Europeans, making use on such occasions of a great deal of violent gesture. In old days both men and women were considerably tattooed, but the custom has now practically died out.

Their clothing originally was of the scantiest description. The women wore a sort of kilt. Mats were worn by both males and females, and some of them were of great value. Like nearly all savage races they decorated themselves fancifully with ornaments of various kinds.

MAORI AND THEIR PRIESTS

Amongst the most highly prized was one which they wore suspended round their necks. It was made of greenstone. Many imitations of these neck ornaments are to be found in shops in the British Isles.

In the old days they had no firearms; they used spears and clubs. All the former and some of the latter were made of wood. The clubs had different names and were constructed of various materials, such, for instance, as greenstone and whalebone. Where all fared alike in the matter of weapons, the Maori were not able to put down their victories to superiority possessed, by one side over the other, in implements of warfare.

The descriptions given of their war dances show that these were, to say the least of it, very vigorous and well suited to rouse to a state of frenzy both performers and onlookers. The ceremony adopted on the occasion of a death was, especially in the case of a chief, extremely weird, and indeed up to the present day the funeral rite is very much of the same description. The ceremony sometimes lasts for several days, and during that time those engaged in it alternately feast and weep.

They had a practice of making things "sacred," and when those who touched whatever had been placed in that position, or indeed in many cases entered into an area that had been made "sacred," they were liable to punishment by death. The practice of making things "sacred" is carried out up to the present day, but, needless to say, the punishment awarded does not embrace the death penalty. The priests were naturally those who were entrusted with undertaking the duties necessary for making "sacred" whatever was deemed proper for such a proceeding. The powers of the priests were, as in the case of many other races, very great.

The Maori were divided, and still are, into tribes, and most of their wars were connected either with land or women. Their chiefs held their position by hereditary

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

right (through the female branch failing male issue) and were exceedingly autocratic. They held the land for their respective tribes. They could not declare at their own instance either for keeping peace or making war, but doubtless their opinions as to the desirability of either one or the other had a great effect in helping the tribes to come to a decision.

The occupations of the Maori, when not fighting, were those of building for themselves huts to live in, fishing, pig-hunting, and cultivating as much of the land as they considered necessary to provide for their wants. The sweet potato, which they had brought over with them, they cultivated in large quantities. This was doubtless due to the fact that it was a food they were accustomed to in the land from which they came and the value of which was known to them.

They had learnt the value of canoes, long before they came to New Zealand, as is clear from their voyage to that country. Having been accustomed to canoe-building, they continued the practice in their new home, in order that they might carry out their fishing expeditions, and also that they might make journeys, either by the sea or by river.

The Maori fortified their villages with a considerable amount of science. Considering that, many years after their landing in New Zealand, these fortified villages were able to resist the attacks of Europeans who brought both guns and small arms to bear upon them, it seems somewhat remarkable that they were ever taken by direct assault during their tribal wars. After firearms had been brought into the country they considerably modified the details of construction of their fortifications, but the general principles remained the same.

There was no written language among the Maori, and indeed, excepting what has been taught to them by Europeans, they have none up to the present day.

MAORI AS SAILOR AND FIGHTER

Their legends, songs, and proverbs are numerous, and are preserved by being transmitted verbally from one generation to another. Many of their songs are emotional, and this is especially the case when they are used as death laments. Their amusements in early days were numerous, and were doubtless handed down from the time of their existence in the land from which they came to New Zealand. One of the games which they played was "Knuckle-bones," a game not unknown among civilized races.

The Maori had not apparently many diseases in days gone by, and doubtless many of those from which they suffered were derived from germs they brought with them to the country. Consumption appears to have been one of the most prevalent diseases, and no doubt the fatal results have been much increased since they adopted the custom of wearing European clothes. Such clothes were not suitable to the life they led in their villages, or paha, or to their previous surroundings. Some of their remedies were exceedingly drastic, as, for instance, hanging by the heels, over a fire, one who had nearly been drowned, with a view to a cure by the direct effects of smoke. They had, however, always ready to their hand at Rotorua, Taupo, and elsewhere the hot baths, both of mud and water, for use as remedies in many diseases for which they were suitable, and of which Europeans now so largely avail themselves.

Their food was the dog, the pig, and the Maori rat, various kinds of fish, the sweet potato, fern root, and some of the succulent parts of the cabbage tree and the nikau palm. They particularly liked shark after it had been reduced to an almost inconceivable state of rottenness. Probably many of their diseases could be traced to their consumption of this abominable food. The odour from this delicacy is almost poisonous to a European. That they were savages and cannibals was very quickly

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

discovered by some of the earliest visitors to the shores of New Zealand.

They proved themselves to be fine and generous fighters during the wars which took place between them and the British at various times after the annexation of the country. They have exhibited shrewdness and capacity in all the business and political undertakings with which they have been connected.

They have shown, by the advantage they have taken of the schools provided for them, which are attended by no less than seven thousand native children, that they value education highly, and many of them enter the University, take degrees, and prove themselves to be quite up to the average as clergymen, doctors, and lawyers. It must not be thought that they did not value education before its advent in European form; but the education that they received at that time was not on the lines accepted as necessary by what are known as civilized races. It fitted them, however, for the life they had to lead. It made every man capable, either as sailor or soldier, of being able to fight for his tribe and, if needs required, for his country. It ensured that those who proved themselves most capable and fearless in war should lead them when meeting their enemies.

The education of the Maori was further developed by the teaching of the priests who, versed in all the traditions of the race, communicated them to their most promising pupils considered fit to become leaders of the people.

Technical education, moreover, was not neglected, as the weapons with which they fought, and the implements of the chase, as well as those sufficient for their agriculture, were admirably constructed. The supernatural played a considerable part in their system and all sorts of circumstances arose that were attributed to that cause.

Their laws and customs, including land tenure and

THE LOYAL MAORI

many other important matters connected with the welfare of the race, were very complicated. Complications in such matters, however, have not been entirely confined to the Maori race. The tribal wars were always fiercely fought out to the bitter end. They were commenced for the purpose of conquest, and were carried on until that end was attained. The Maori quickly learned from their European visitors the value of firearms, and procured them as soon as they could do so. One Christianized chief, who visited England in 1820, having during his visit seen how civilized nations were armed with weapons that enabled them to destroy their enemies with greater rapidity than his own countrymen could with their's, determined to procure some of a similar kind. He returned to New Zealand *via* Sydney, and there converted the valuable presents he had received into the wherewithal to buy guns and ammunition. Having procured these he continued his voyage, and on his arrival in his native land used them to such advantage that he was able to kill two thousand of his not so well armed adversaries more expeditiously than he could have done before.

The Maori of the present day live perfectly amicably amongst their white neighbours. They have certain laws affecting their own lands, but are otherwise practically subject to the same laws as the white population, and obey them just as well. They are very loyal to the nation which annexed their country and to the Ruler of the Empire of which it forms a part.

Their anxiety to serve the Queen during the Boer war, when they begged in thousands for permission to be included in the contingents which went to South Africa, was a strikingly expressed evidence of this loyalty.

The Maori has but little desire to do any agricultural work, or indeed any work that requires constant application. It is true that they farm certain pieces of land

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

in various districts, but it is done in a most perfunctory manner, and is in most cases left entirely alone if something of a more interesting nature turns up, or if they feel more indolent than usual. They, however, do a considerable amount of shearing for their white neighbours, and do it well.

They prefer staying in their pahs and passing a quiet, do-nothing life. This is, generally speaking, only following the usual custom of the races coming from equatorial regions. They go to the towns and frequently become loafers round hotels and billiard-rooms, because they have not, and do not want, anything better to do. They, in most cases, wear European clothes which under the ordinary conditions of pah life are quite unsuitable.

The number of Maori wives of Europeans increased nearly eight per cent. between 1901 and 1906. This is an undesirable state of affairs, as not only are half-caste progeny in most cases delicate, but they lose the best characteristics of one race without bringing out those of the other.

The Maori at present are in the stage of having to a large extent parted from their native state, and yet not having completely arrived at one of civilization. They are, however, rapidly attaining the latter condition. An illustration of this has been afforded by the fact that in certain places where the entire population practically consisted of Maori they asked permission to themselves make their own regulations suitable to their local concerns and their especial wants. Parliament, recognizing that to do what was asked would tend to their higher civilization, legislated in 1900 with a view to this being done. It is stated that the Maori have recently been asking to have control of their own lands. Should such be the case, a further instance is afforded of their desire to be more closely drawn into the civilized circle. For years past they have accepted the decision of the Native

RELATIONS BETWEEN TWO RACES

Land Court, and the superior courts of law as to the ownership of their tribal lands.

The Maori have certainly not been losers by their absorption in the British community consequent on the annexation of their country. Large reserves of land have been made for them which are inalienable. The land held by the Maori has equally with that now possessed by the Europeans risen enormously in value owing to the settlement of the country. Many of the Maori are very rich and enjoy their wealth by participating in the sports and luxuries introduced by the Europeans.

The census of 1901 showed that there were 43,143, exclusive of half-castes, in the dominion. In 1906, under the same conditions there were 47,731. It is extremely improbable that the increase shown is due to any real addition to the number of Maori. It is almost certain to be the result of better enumeration.

PART II

CHAPTER I

PHYSICAL AND ARTIFICIAL FEATURES

NEW ZEALAND originally a small group of islands—Mountains—Lakes—Plains—Rivers—Springs—Harbours.

NEW ZEALAND, at one age in the world's history, was a small group of islands, which at a later period was elevated until it became a part of a large continent, and was afterwards isolated through the sinking of a portion of the mainland.

The action of the various forces of nature which have contributed to the country attaining its present condition has resulted in different physical features in each of the main islands.

The North Island extends over a little more than seven degrees of latitude, and is about five hundred miles in actual land length between its northern and southern points. The greater portion of the island is mountainous, although there are considerable areas of plain and fairly level country. Generally speaking, however, it may be described as a hilly country. Enormous areas were undoubtedly covered with forest in days gone by, but gradually much of this has disappeared from a variety of causes.

The main range of mountains in this island lies rather on the eastward side, the general direction of the range being N.W. and S.E. Its northern and principal portion is named Ruahine, and extends for a distance of about eighty miles. A mountain gorge then divides the range, and the southern portion which extends over forty miles is called Tararua. The mountains in this range

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

do not in some cases exceed more than 1,500 feet in height, and never more than 4,000 feet. When the southern extremity of the Tararua division of the range is reached, the mountains take a more easterly direction and continue to the southernmost point of the island.

Parallel with the main range, but further to the westward and extending much further to the northward, there is another called the Kaimanawha range.

The principal mountains, as distinguished from ranges, are Tongariro, Ruapehu, and Mount Egmont. The latter is an extinct volcano, and rises to the height of 8,260 feet. Its summit is covered with perpetual snow. When seen from the sea, on approaching New Zealand from the westward, one is strongly reminded of the appearance of Mount Fusi-yama in Japan.

Tongariro consists of a number of volcanic cones. Of these Ngauruhoe, 7,515 feet is the highest. Next in order comes the cone called the Red Crater, 6,140 feet high, and, lastly, Te Mari, which reaches 4,990 feet. These craters are still active, and form what may be called safety vents. Ngauruhoe was quite recently in active eruption.

Ruapehu lies to the southward of Tongariro. It attains a height of 9,008 feet, and is therefore clothed with perpetual snow for some distance from its summit. At the bottom of the crater on the top of this mountain there lies a lake about 300 feet in diameter which is subject to slight eruptions. When these occur large quantities of steam are given off from the lake. Only thirteen years ago an eruption took place and a few hot springs were formed. The lake is 300 feet below the enclosing peaks, which are covered with ice and snow.

In the centre of the island lies Lake Taupo, the principal lake in the North Island. Out of it flows the Waikato river on its way to the sea far away to the northward. The Huka Falls, on the Waikato, form one of the most beautiful sights in this part of the country. The other

THERMAL SPRINGS

lakes are not of any great size. Lake Waikaremoana in the Poverty Bay district is about eleven miles long and has a breadth of eight miles at its widest part. North of the city of Auckland, in the Bay of Islands district, is a lake called Omapere, which is about three miles by two, and is an old crater. In what is known as the Waikato country there are two lakes, Waikare and Whangape. The former of these is about six miles by three, and the other five miles by one. In the Wairarapa valley in the south-east of the island is Lake Wairarapa, about twelve miles long and four broad.

The remainder of the lakes worth mentioning are in the thermal springs area, which is not far from Tauranga on the shore of the Bay of Plenty. They are from seven to eight miles long and three to six miles wide. Of these the principal are Rotorua, Rotorua, and Rotoiti. The hot springs district just referred to is the most remarkable feature in the country. It constitutes one of the physical wonders of the world. In it are lakes and springs, mud volcanoes, and other remarkable wonders of nature of an astonishing character. Further allusion to these will be found in the chapter on scenery.

The plains are principally on the western side of the island. The most remarkable are the Kaingaroa plains, near Taupo. They extend over a considerable area, and are formed entirely of pumice.

The navigable rivers of the North Island are but few. The principal are the Waikato, the Thames, the Wanganui, and the Manawatu. The first named is navigable by small steamers for about one hundred miles from its mouth, which is not far to the southward of Manukau Harbour on the west coast.

The Thames flows northward from its source north of Taupo, and empties itself into the Firth of Thames to

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

the westward of the Coromandel peninsula. This river is navigable for but a short distance and only by small steamers.

The Manawatu rises to the eastward of the Ruahine range and falls into the sea on the south-west coast of the island. It is navigable by small steamers for a few miles from its mouth.

The Wanganui river rises near the centre of the island and falls into the sea not very far from the Manawatu. This river is navigable by small trading vessels as far as the town of the same name and by excursion steamers for many miles further.

The principal harbours are all on the east coast, those on the west side being all bar harbours. It may be said, strictly speaking, that Wellington Harbour is not on the east coast. It is, however, to the eastward side of the south-western extremity of the island.

As in the southern outlying islands, so in this North Island occurs the peculiarity of all harbours of any value being on the east side.

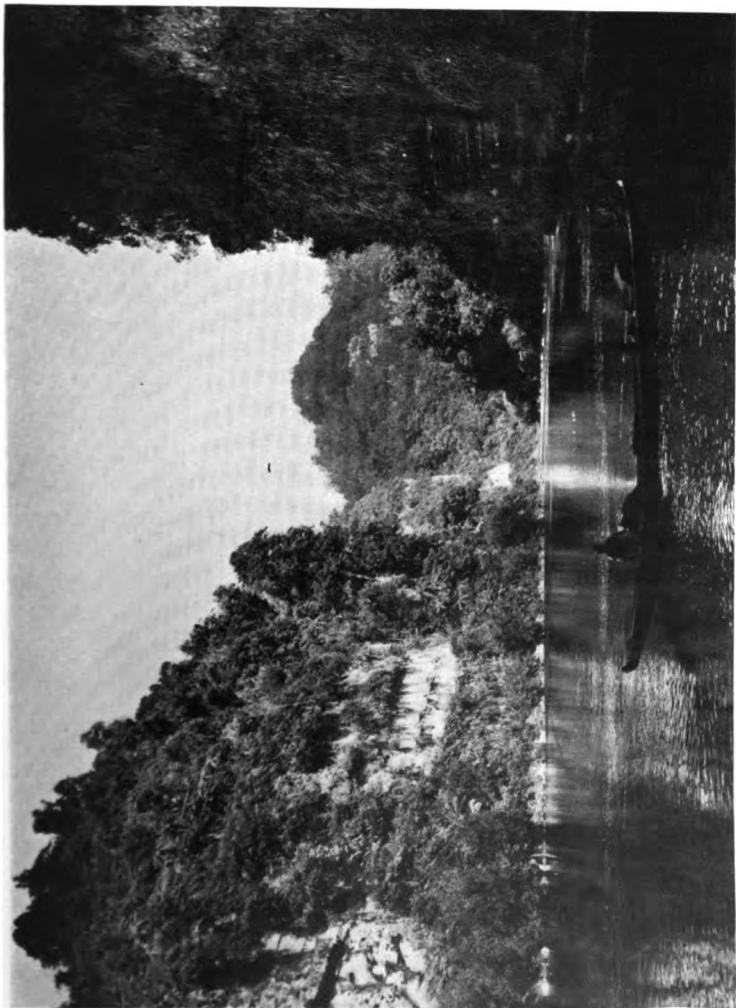
The South Island is separated from the North Island by Cook's Strait. This strait is about sixteen miles across at its narrowest point, and ninety miles at its widest.

The South Island extends over about six degrees of latitude. The extreme land length is about 525 miles from Jackson's Head in Cook's Strait to Puysegur Point at the extreme south-west.

A main mountain range extends practically from one end of the island to the other and lies nearer to the western than the eastern side.

The general character of the South Island is mountainous like its sister island in the north, and like the latter has large areas of plains and undulating land. The largest continuous area of flat land in the whole dominion

WANGANUI RIVER



FIORDS AND SNOW-CLAD PEAKS

is comprised in the Canterbury Plains in the South Island. These plains are about 100 miles in length, and contain about 3,000,000 acres.

The principal features of the South Island are the magnificent range of mountains, called the Southern Alps, and the fiords or sounds on the south-western coast.

Some of the mountains in the southern range attain a great height, the highest peak being that of Mount Cook, which reaches 12,349 feet. Mount Earnslaw, Mount Sefton, and other splendid peaks rise to a great height. Amongst the latter must be mentioned Mount Aspiring, with its height of 9,049 feet. The snow line being at the height of 7,500 feet many of the giants of the Southern Alps are always clothed in snow for thousands of feet from their summits.

Mention must also be made of the Hanmer thermal springs district in the northern part of the Canterbury provincial district, and about thirty miles from the coast. This is not as large as the area of springs at Rotorua in the North Island nor so wonderful, but still of much interest.

On the south-west coast are some remarkable fiords, extending over a coast-line of about 130 miles. These may be said to be one of the grandest examples of sea fiords in the world. The extraordinary depth of water in them is one amongst their many remarkable features.

The lakes in the South Island are numerous, some of them being of great size and depth. They are principally to be found south of Mount Cook, but the northern and western portions of the island also claim their share.

The largest lake is Te Anau, which has an area of about 130 square miles. Lake Wakatipu is another of the larger lakes. It has an area of about 114 square miles, and is situated more than 1,000 feet above sea-level. It is exceedingly deep.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Lake Wanaka has an area of seventy-five square miles, and Lake Manapouri of fifty-six. Lakes Hawea, Ohau and Pukaki are all more than 1,000 feet above the sea. Lake Tekapo is more than 2,000 feet above sea-level. All these lakes are of glacial origin and very deep.

The South Island rivers are, with but few exceptions, practically mountain torrents. The Clutha is the largest river in the dominion and the volume of water discharged by it into the sea is calculated to be 1,600,000 cubic feet per minute. It cannot truly be described as a navigable river as it is only passable for about thirty miles from its mouth, and then only by small steamers.

Three rivers on the west coast are navigable for a few miles from the sea. These are the Buller, the Grey, and the Hokitika. The last named can scarcely be termed navigable. The Buller and the Grey now admit steamers of considerable draught to the towns of Westport and Greymouth respectively.

The rivers have without doubt considerably altered the condition of vast areas. Floods of extraordinary volume have during comparatively recent years caused a large quantity of land through which they have rushed to become in some cases perfectly useless from the debris scattered over many square miles of country. On the other hand, large districts have been increased in fertility by the alluvial deposits with which the land has been covered. What happened in by-gone ages it is impossible to say, but there are evidences of many of those rivers having at one time flowed through the country at a much higher level than now.

The principal harbours in the South Island are Nelson, Lyttelton, Port Chalmers (the Dunedin seaport), and the Bluff. There is also a fine harbour at Akaroa on Banks'

SHELTERED EAST COAST

Peninsula. On this island it will again be found that the natural harbours are on the east coast, or else placed in such a position as to be protected from westerly winds and seas. The fiords can scarcely be considered harbours.

Stewart Island, the southernmost of the main islands, separated from them by Foveaux Strait, has a very broken coast-line and is, generally speaking, rugged and covered with dense bush. Towards its southern extremity there is a range of mountains of which the highest peak is Mount Angelem. This mountain rises to a height of 3,200 feet above sea-level and has an extinct crater at its summit. The principal bays and harbours are, like those of the North and South Islands, all on the east coast. Half Moon Bay, well known to whalers in days gone by, is the principal port. Patterson Inlet, to the northward of this bay, and Port Pegasus to the southward, are fine sheets of water, the latter being land-locked and a very fine harbour.

Round the coast of New Zealand are to be found many small islands, amongst which the following may be named : The Three Kings, Great and Little Barrier, Great Mercury, White Island, and Kapiti off the North Island ; and D'Urville and Resolution off the coast of the South Island. There is also a group of rocky islets called the Snares to the southward of Stewart Island.

White Island must be particularly referred to on account of its containing an active volcano. This island is situated to the north-east of the Bay of Plenty, and is in the direct line of volcanic energy extending from Ruapehu through the hot spring district away to the unknown.

From the foregoing sketch of the physical features it will be observed that volcanic action has produced the peculiar configuration of the North Island while in the South Island glacial action has been predominant.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The principal artificial features of New Zealand may be described as consisting chiefly of the great lines of railway, which now traverse the country nearly from end to end, and the harbours and lighthouses which have been constructed to promote the development of trade.

Of the latter the principal in the North Island is that of Napier, the port of Hawke's Bay. This harbour must always be an important one on account of the large and fertile district for which it is the outlet. Whether it will ever fulfil the expectations of its designers and promoters is another matter.

Turning to the South Island, but without mentioning natural harbours that have been improved, one must point to Oamaru and Timaru on the east coast, and Greymouth and Westport on the west. Timaru harbour is enclosed by a breakwater and covers an area of fifty acres. Ships of very large tonnage are able to visit this port in favourable weather to discharge and ship cargo for the large and important district of South Canterbury. Oamaru has also a harbour formed by a breakwater, but its capacity for the reception of large vessels is not so favourable as in the case of Timaru.

Westport is a harbour of importance, as it was an absolute necessity to provide one for the great export of coal from the rich mines of the southern part of the Nelson district. It is a bar harbour, but the important works that have been carried out have made it now possible for vessels of considerable size to go up the river to the town, where immense facilities are provided for the shipment of coal.

Greymouth again is an instance of a bar harbour which, through the necessity of providing an outlet for its produce, was made available in the interests of the dominion for the passage of vessels of a large size.

The lighthouses are widely spread round its coast, and their lights are of a high class order. Some of the

WELL-LIGHTED COAST-LINE

principal lighthouses in the North Island are Cape Maria Van Diemen, East Cape, Cape Palliser, Pencarrow Head (entrance to Wellington Harbour), Tiritiri near Auckland Harbour, Cape Egmont, Manukau, and Stephen Island in Cook's Straits ; in the South Island, Cape Campbell, Godley Head, Akaroa Head, Taiaroa Head, Cape Saunders, Nugget Point, Puysegur Point, Cape Foulwind and Farewell Spit.

There is scarcely a point of any importance to mariners that is left without a lighthouse, and many of them are in telephonic communication with the telegraph system. The apparatus used in the great majority of these lighthouses is the most improved order of dioptric.

CHAPTER II

SCENERY

**A COUNTRY teeming with interesting features—Beautiful scenery
—The Southern Alps—Geysers.**

It is almost impossible to describe the scenery of this wonderland of the south embracing as it does nearly every variety to be found in the countries of the world.

The traveller visiting New Zealand, no matter where he may land, will find something of absorbing interest and beauty to greet him on his arrival.

Landing at Auckland, after having passed through the quiet waters of the Hauraki Gulf, with its innumerable islands clothed with verdure, he will find himself in a city in a sub-tropical climate with flowers and plants from all parts of the world growing in their natural beauty. Going north from Auckland he will find what remains of the great Kauri forests, which were at one time spread over a large portion of this end of the country.

If he turns south he will soon find himself in the great hot spring district which, though it cannot be described as "beautiful," yet presents a picture of wild grandeur and weirdness scarcely to be surpassed anywhere. Here, and still further south in the same district, he will find evidences of the great forces of nature which have, not only in days gone by, but also in later years, made the country an object lesson of their power. Miles of pumice show what those volcanic mountains, long since extinct as far as human knowledge goes, ejected from their subterranean depths.

If the traveller after reaching Lake Taupo turns to the eastward he will journey through a country desolate for a long distance, but gradually emerging into forest-clad

JOURNEYS BY SEA AND LAND

hills for many miles. He will then pass on through lower and well-cultivated lands until he reaches Napier on the east coast.

Should he, instead of turning to the eastward, decide to continue his travels in a southerly direction, he will cross over Lake Taupo, and finally after journeying down the far-famed Wanganui River, with its bush-clad banks towering above him, reach the town of the same name. He can then turn again to the south-west through a country which at one time was dense bush, but is now cultivated land, and dotted with settlements. At the end of the line of railway, which has taken him from Wanganui, he will reach Wellington. Here again he will meet with a view which must appeal to his sense of that which is beautiful. The generally foam-flecked harbour, surrounded by high hills on almost every side, save where the eye lights on the Rimutaka range standing out in the far distance at the end of the long Hutt valley, is a scene of wonderful beauty.

Crossing Cook's Straits he can pass through the sounds, on the north coast of the South Island, which have beauties of their own that cannot fail to attract the eye of the traveller.

Arriving at Nelson the journey can be continued through bush and along the banks of rivers which both provide great and ever-varying scenic effects. Going still farther south, the wanderer in this truly wonderful land can reach the towns of Westport and Greymouth and gaze at the marvellous seascape provided by the Pacific Ocean. Crossing over the dividing range from Greymouth to the east coast, mountains, rivers, and bush again furnish a variety of scene that can never be effaced from the memory. The traveller, once across the Southern Alps, finds himself approaching the city of Christchurch situated on the vast plain which extends south for many miles. Large areas of cultivated land are now to be

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

found, presenting a wonderful effect suggestive of peace and comfort.

Had the tourist gone from Wellington to Lyttelton by steamer he would have seen as he passed along the coast the snow-clad Kaikouras and in the background many of the giant mountains of the Southern Alps. He has now arrived at Lyttelton, the port of Christchurch.

Leaving Christchurch by train he passes for a considerable distance through a flat country that has been called uninteresting. Flat as it is, and possessing no natural beauty, it yet presents to the eye a picture of rest and peacefulness which cultivated land alone can give. Far away in the distance, moreover, are to be seen the Southern Alps, perpetually crowned with snow which in winter covers them to their base.

Passing away from the plains the journey is continued over an undulating country, for the most part under tillage, and with homesteads scattered here and there. Journeying still further south, the country shows another aspect as the train climbs the steep cliffs with the ocean thundering at their base. Then, again, the train descends through a wild-looking but charming country until it reaches Port Chalmers. Thence on to Dunedin the train follows a winding course beside the long stretch of inland sea leading to the port of Dunedin.

Departing from Dunedin again by train, the journey is continued through fertile plains and over rolling downs, by mountains, and over rivers until 139 miles have been traversed and Invercargill is reached.

The traveller's search for beautiful scenery need not, however, end with the journey that has been taken from Auckland to the south. His time will be well spent in visiting some of the lakes in the North Island and making short journeys here and there to see the wonderful beauties of its bush country.

GLACIERS AND FERTILE PLAINS

When he reaches Christchurch he can make a journey to Hanmer and see a thermal spring district with different surroundings to those of the north. To reach Hanmer he will have passed through fertile plains and will have viewed scenery of a varied description.

When he returns to Christchurch he can travel south as far as Timaru, and there turn off to visit the wonderful glacier region in the neighbourhood of Mount Cook. Returning from that ice-bound country he can travel to Dunedin or Invercargill, and from either of those places make a journey to the beautiful southern lakes and look on marvellous mountain and forest scenes.

From Lake Te Anau he can pass on through the heart of the mountains, with various marvels of nature displayed on every side, until he reaches Milford Sound.

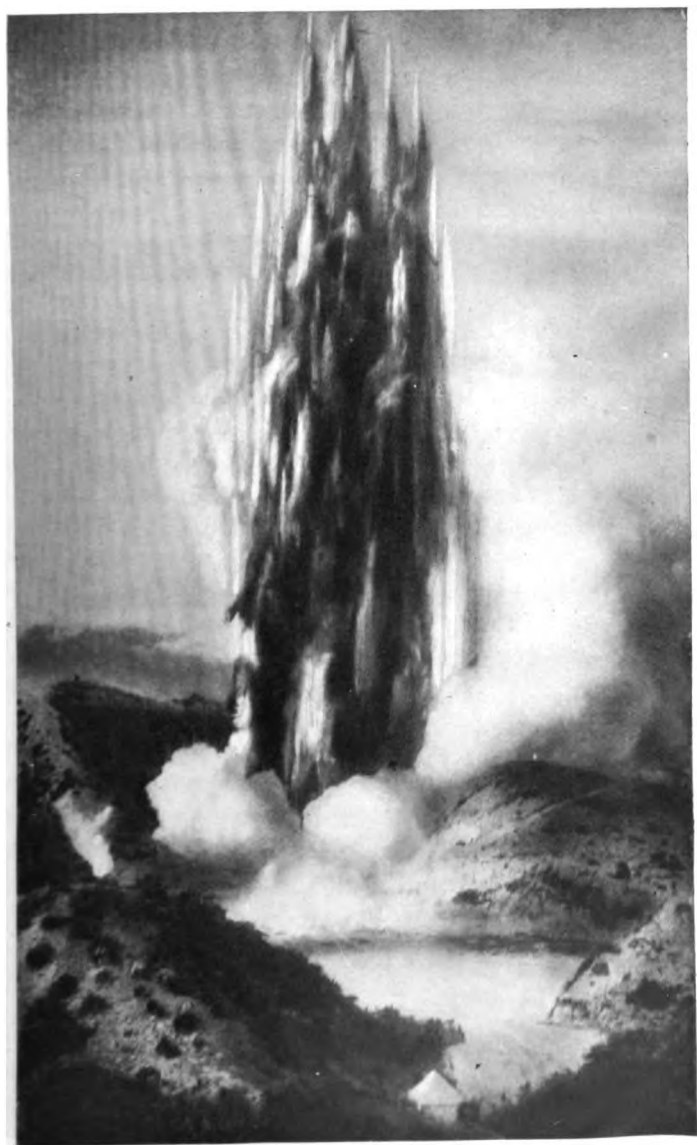
Milford Sound is the northern of the thirteen fiords embraced in the coast-line of some 130 miles on the south-western side of the South Island, which are wonderful in their beauty and grandeur. These sounds, of world-wide renown, are guarded on either side of their entrances by towering mountains whose steep sides are clothed with verdure wherever plant life can exist.

The Southern Alps present features of grandeur that many noted alpine climbers describe as not being surpassed anywhere in Europe. The glaciers are remarkable for their size and beauty, and one of them at least can compare favourably with any glacier in the world. This is the Tasman Glacier with an area of 13,644 acres; a length of eighteen miles, and an average width of more than a mile and a half. (The Alletsh Glacier in Switzerland has an average width of one mile.) The glaciers on the western side are of extraordinary beauty, as from the greater steepness of the mountain slopes they descend to within 100 feet of sea-level, their base lying amongst the evergreen bush.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

In the chapter on Physical Features allusion has been made to the thermal springs area of the North Island, but a little further description will be of interest. In the first place, this geyser land is one of great antiquity. Geologists tell us that the geysers are the oldest in the world, with the exception of those in Wyoming and Idaho in the United States of America. The area of volcanic activity is about 150 miles long and twenty miles wide, stretching in a diagonal direction from White Island in the Bay of Plenty to Ruapehu, south of Taupo. That part of the thermal region of most interest to the traveller may be said to centre round and about Rotorua. There are, however, many wonders to be seen at Tikitere, near Rotorua; at Waiotapu; at Wairakei, on the way to Taupo from Rotorua, and at Orakei-Korako, where a white terrace is being formed similar to that destroyed during the eruption of Tarawera in 1886. Beautiful lakes, some fringed here and there by bush, boiling springs, mud volcanoes, and geysers are to be found almost everywhere. Although some of the lakes add a touch of beauty to the scene, the general feeling aroused on visiting the district is that of wonder and awe. Tikitere, with its boiling pools and ponds of seething mud; Lake Rotomahana lying over the site of the far-famed Pink Terraces, and not far from Tarawera and Whakarewarewa, with its numerous geysers, one and all provide a series of marvels difficult to be described. Near Lake Rotomahana is the wonderful Waimangu Geyser, which throws up a column of mud and water to an amazing height. The greatest altitude reached is estimated at 1,500 feet. There are, however, both at Whakarewarewa and Wairakei many geysers which eject huge columns of water at fixed intervals with the regularity of clockwork.

The wonders of this marvellous district do not, however, end here. Valleys enveloped in steam from the innumerable fumaroles and hot springs, and mountains whose



WAIMANGU GEYSER

GEYSERS AND VOLCANOES

craters at one time belched forth the debris now scattered in all directions are evidences of the forces that have made this country so very remarkable.

One cannot leave this geyserland without alluding to the appropriate touches of life that the Maori lends to the picture. Scattered about here and there are the villages in which live the descendants of that native race that centuries ago came from Hawaiki to occupy the land. Here they spend their time probably much in the same way that their ancestors did, and, like them, cook their food at the boiling springs.

To do justice here to all that is marvellous and beautiful in the scenery of New Zealand would be an impossible task. An attempt, however, has been made to show that there is much to attract the lovers of the wonders of nature.

Some claim for New Zealand scenery the distinction of being the finest in the world. That, however, is too much to say, but it may safely be asserted that it is well worthy of comparison with other countries long renowned for their scenic charms.

CHAPTER III

CLIMATE

LOWEST death-rate in the world—Temperature—Rainfall—
Prevailing winds—Comparative temperatures.

THE fact that New Zealand's death-rate is the lowest in the world may be attributed in great measure to its extremely healthy climate, which resembles in many ways that of England. It is however drier, warmer, and more equable.

In both countries there are varieties of climate distinguishing one district from another, sometimes to a remarkable extent. This is due to proximity of mountains, wind-swept plains and the like, as well as to relative distance from the equator. Just as Strathpeffer in Scotland differs in climate from Falmouth in Cornwall, so does Rotorua in New Zealand's northern island differ from Dunedin in the southern.

Speaking generally, it may be said that both England and New Zealand enjoy immunity from climatic disagreeables associated with other countries. There is no lengthened period of extreme heat or of extreme cold in either country. The nights in both are almost always cool; indeed, they are invariably so in the dominion. The change in temperature after sunset, however, is a good deal more marked in the latter than it ever is in England, for in New Zealand one feels suddenly at that time a chilliness never experienced in the mother country.

In both countries long droughts are almost unknown. This gives New Zealand a great advantage over many other parts of Australasia as a place for breeding sheep and cattle. The rainfall in both countries is pretty evenly divided over the twelve months of the year. Neither country is deluged with torrential rain except

VARIETIES OF CLIMATE

on very rare occasions. Indeed, there are but few places in either where the average annual amount measured is really excessive. There are, it is true, exceptional places, such as Hokitika, where the average amount of rain annually recorded is very great, but the number of these rainy spots is small and they are all on the west side of the dominion.

There is a similarity between England and New Zealand as regards the dryness of the east side of the country compared with the west. For example, we find in the case of New Zealand that, on an average, there are in Christchurch on the east side only 123 days in the year on which any rain falls, while in New Plymouth on the west side the average is 185. In other words, there are sixty-two more wet days annually in the western town than in Christchurch on the east coast. Similarly we find in England the annual average number of rain-days at Shoeburyness on the east coast is only 140 while at Falmouth on the west coast it is 211.

The comparatively greater dryness of New Zealand, as a whole, compared with England and Wales is liable to be somewhat exaggerated in the minds of those who have lived in both countries, for in New Zealand it rains during the night more frequently than in the day-time. The result of this is that one hears less grumbling in the dominion about the rain than in the mother country. The New Zealand farmer often sows his seed during the warm sunshine of one day, and on awaking the next morning finds that it has been watered by cool rain during the night, and that he can proceed with his work during the bright sunshine of another day. Of course, such a satisfactory alternation is not by any means constant, but it occurs much more frequently in New Zealand than in the mother country.

Again, the average quantity of measured rain that comes down in the dominion during the fewer rain-days

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

annually is greater than what is measured in England during the twelvemonth, though the number of rain-days is larger in the mother country. In the latter 33 inches, on an average of thirty-five years' observations, make up the total amount measured in a year. This quantity is spread over 180 rain-days, while in New Zealand no less than 53½ inches, on an average, are measured annually, albeit the number of rain-days is no more than 161. In other words, less than two-tenths of an inch of rain falls, on an average, during the twenty-four hours of each rain-day in England while in the dominion the quantity in the same period amounts on an average to upwards of three-tenths of an inch. Or, to put it in fewer words, the rain is heavier in New Zealand while it lasts than it is in England.

The foregoing figures would require to be somewhat modified as far as the mother country is concerned if Scotland and Ireland were included in the calculations, for in both these divisions of the United Kingdom there is considerably more rain, on an average, measured annually than in England and Wales and it falls on a greater number of days in the year.

The above facts are set forth with further detail in the following table :—

**AVERAGE ANNUAL RAINFALL AND RAIN-DAYS
IN NEW ZEALAND AND THE THREE DIVISIONS
OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.**

*(The figures in the case of the United Kingdom are derived
from observations extending over the thirty-five years, 1871-1905)*

	NEW ZEALAND				ENGLAND and WALES		SCOTLAND		IRELAND	
	North Island		South Island		Inches	Rain- days	Inches	Rain- days	Inches	Rain- days
	Inches	Rain- days	Inches	Rain- days						
East side	38	147	35	136	28	177	41	218	37	227
West side	46	178	116	185	38	184	51	206	39	205
Mean..	42	162	75	160	33	180	46	212	38	216

MOUNTAIN WINDS

The smallest quantity of rain measured up to a recent date in any year at a single New Zealand station was fifteen inches at Clyde, the chief town of Vincent County, in the old provincial district of Otago. The largest in the dominion was 228 inches. This was actually in the same provincial district as Clyde, namely, at Puysegur Point, Fiord County. These two places are within 150 miles of each other, and the great difference between the two records bears out the assertion by travellers that there is scarcely another place of similar extent on the globe where, within a comparatively small area, so great varieties of climate can be found as in New Zealand.

Much of this variety is due to the loftiness of mountains such as the Ruahines in the North Island and the Southern Alps and Kaikouras in the South. Close to the western shore of the South Island, for instance, you may be travelling on a level with the sea in a balmy atmosphere, but before you have proceeded a dozen miles inland you find the air chilled by glaciers, and you are close to mountains covered with perpetual snow.

From these mountains there often springs up quite suddenly a wind whose force no one could realize who had not lived in the dominion. This wind is cold at first, but its chilliness and moisture are gone by the time it has blown across the wide expanse of plain stretching towards the eastern coast. In many parts, indeed, of the dominion this wind is on the eastern side associated with leaden-coloured skies, weird-looking sunsets, and a hot-house-like atmosphere. The oppressiveness is mitigated, however, during the winter months of May, June, and July.

When this wind is blowing the best thing to do, if one wishes to be at all comfortable, is to retire within a closely shut-up house into which the furnace-like blast is unable to penetrate. In contrast to this the south wind which blows occasionally across the lower part of

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

the South Island reminds one that the Antarctic regions are not many hundred miles away.

The air is seldom quite still in the dominion. The leaves of the trees are almost always in motion. This is especially remarkable about sundown, at which time there invariably springs up a breeze which is most refreshing. We cease to wonder at this breeziness when we remember the geographical position of New Zealand—a great hulk as it were, moored in the middle of a vast ocean, the largest water-surface on the globe, and no great tract of land within 900 miles. It must also be borne in mind that both islands are very narrow and that no part of the inland country is more than fifty miles from the sea-coast.

This constant stirring of the air by the breeze has doubtless something to do with the remarkable healthiness of New Zealand. The germs of disease get no chance of remaining long undisturbed in any part of the dominion.

While movement of the air is more constant in New Zealand than in the mother country, the latter suffers more frequently from destructive gales than the dominion. The fierce storm which uproots giant oaks in England is almost unknown in New Zealand. On the other hand, there is no city or town in the United Kingdom so continuously swept by high winds as Wellington. Some speak of New Zealand's capital as the breeziest large city in the world.

It is interesting to note that the prevailing direction of the wind in the dominion is from the south-west. This is more marked on the east side of both islands. The next most frequently recorded direction is the north-east. The following table shows the relative frequency of each direction for both islands as noted at the thirteen observatories which on the east side are at Auckland, Rotorua,

A BREEZY CITY

Gisborne, and Meeanee in the North Island; and Hanmer Springs, Christchurch, Lincoln College, and Dunedin in the South Island: those on the west side being at Plymouth, Moumohaki, Levin and Wellington in the North Island, and at Hokitika in the South Island.

Direction of Wind.	Out of every hundred records made of the Direction of the Wind.	
	EAST SIDE.	WEST SIDE.
N.	16·7
N.E.	6·6	29·6
E.	6·6
S.E.	13·3	2·2
S.	6·6	2·2
S.W.	10·0	43·2
W.	10·0	9·1
N.W.	30·0	13·6

New Zealand being much nearer to the equator than England is, one might expect to find the heat greater during the summer months in the dominion than in the mother country. This, however, is not the case. The shade thermometer rose but a trifle higher in Auckland during the hottest month, January, in any year for which there are records than 84° F., whereas at Greenwich in England during the same period it reached 95° on more than one occasion.

The following table shows the average of the extreme temperatures recorded in the thirteen places in the dominion where there have been systematic observations made during a number of years. The places are given in the order of their geographical position, the first four in each island being on the east side and the others on the west.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

COMPARATIVE TEMPERATURES OF NEW ZEALAND

Meteorological Observatories.				Maximum ° Fahr.	Minimum ° Fahr.
NORTH ISLAND :—					
East Side	{	Auckland	80·25	38·25
		Rotorua	89·62	24·4
		Gisborne	99	31
		Mecanee	87	28·25
West Side	{	New Plymouth	85	30·75
		Moumohaki	77·85	29·15
		Levin (State Farm)	81·26	26·33
		Wellington	78·8	31·87
SOUTH ISLAND :—					
East Side	{	Hanmer Springs	89·25	19·25
		Christchurch	88·55	24·1
		Lincoln Coll. (Canterbury)	..	89·4	23·75
		Dunedin	83·5	28·25
WEST SIDE	{	Hokitika	83	27·75

CHAPTER IV

GEOLOGY

SOME sources of author's information—Varieties of geological features—Coal—Copper—Gold—Other minerals.

FOR the technical details of this chapter the writer is indebted to the many eminent authorities on the subject, who have made the rock formation of New Zealand their special study. The following are a few of the sources from which he has derived the greater part of the facts here given :—

Detailed account of the Geological and Mineral Products of New Zealand (published in 1886 as separate guide to the Geological Branch of the Indian and Colonial Exhibition).

The Mineral Wealth of New Zealand, by Dr. Mackintosh Bell, M.A., Ph.D., F.R.G.S., Director of the New Zealand Geological Survey. (Paper read before the Colonial Institute, London, and published in Vol. XXXIX of *Proceedings*.)

Various works by Sir James Hector, K.C.M.G., the predecessor of Dr. Mackintosh Bell in the Geological Department, and others.

It is most interesting to note the remarkable variety of geological phenomena presented throughout the dominion. Thus one finds in the North Island hot springs, solfataras, geysers, and other evidences of upheavals in days gone by, while most of the Middle Island is made up of mountainous districts and extensive snow

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

fields from which come glaciers, often larger and grander than those of Switzerland and the Caucasus.

The mountains in the North Island have for their main structure Paleozoic or very early Mesozoic sediments. Over these are Tertiary sediments. There is a large part of the island, particularly towards the centre, composed of volcanic rocks of the Pleistocene age.

The geological section of the South Island is more complete, and the igneous rocks cover a wider petrographical range. Old crystalline schists are found in the heart of the Southern Alps, and some of the hills that run parallel to them. These are flanked with Paleozoic and Mesozoic strata of various periods.

Underneath the Canterbury Plains on the east side of the South Island and the flat land on its west coast is rock composed to a great extent of tertiary strata. This also applies to many parts of the same island both north and south of the "Westland Coastal Plain."

Throughout a large part of the South Island may be found gravels of relatively recent date and having a varied origin, fluvial, marine, and glacial. Igneous rocks form only a comparatively small portion of this island. They are, however, of very varied petrographic forms. They make up the whole of Banks' Peninsula, and are found near Dunedin on the east side. They are also found in the south-west corner, where granite is so abundant, and in the ridges along the western coast.

The "mineral belt" of the Nelson and Westland districts is principally composed of disjointed sheets of dunite and other magnesian rocks.

Stewart Island is composed almost entirely of granites and allied plutonics.

The importance to the dominion of its mineral wealth may be inferred from a consideration of the output of coal alone which reached in 1907 a total of nearly two million tons, the approximate total output to the end

DISTRIBUTION OF COAL

of the same year having reached nearly twenty-five and a quarter millions, valued approximately at £13,000,000.

The coal of New Zealand is interesting from the geologist's point of view, as it differs from that found in Europe and from most of that in North America, in not being of carboniferous age but much later.

As regards petroleum the lowest beds are probably of Miocene age. The upper beds are apparently Pliocene.

The deposits of Iron ore differ remarkably in different parts of the dominion. That in the North Island consists of magnetic iron sands, all more or less titaniferous, which are concentrated in thick beds on the shores of the Tasman Sea, in the district of Taranaki. Pure black sand is here interstratified with felspathic quartz sand, containing titaniferous magnetite, and with others practically free from iron. The black sand has had its origin apparently in the disintegration of hornblende andesites and more basic volcanics; volcanics and tufa are widely distributed round the Egmont volcano.

The rocks in the Southern Island in which iron ore occurs are metamorphic and consist of hornblendic and micaceous schists, sideritic limestones, and cherty quartzites which Professor Cox classifies as Silurian. The ore is a high grade hydrous hæmatite, the impurities being phosphorus, sulphur, titanium, and a little silica and alumina. It has been the result of the concentration of iron oxide by meteoric waters in Cape Farewell peninsula near the most northern point of the South Island.

Also the distribution of coal is singularly interesting, as it is found in nearly every part of the dominion. This widespread distribution makes up for the narrowness of the coal seams and the shallowness of the basins in which it is found. There are various grades of coal differing greatly as to the amount of ash they have and the degree of heat which they produce; at Kaitangata, Shag Point, and Nightcaps are found fairly wide seams of lignites of

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

very good quality. In the hilly country surrounding the Canterbury Plains are to be found widely distributed seams of lignites. This coal is not so highly carbonised as are the coals in the South. Bituminous coal is found in Greymouth and Brunnerton in the Westland District, and in Westport and Puponga in the Nelson District.

To the very superior quality of Westport coal for steaming was due in great measure, the escape of H.M.S. *Calliope* on the remarkable occasion in 1889 when the gale at Samoa was so severe that all the foreign men-of-war were either lost or stranded, and the *Calliope* alone succeeded in steaming out of the harbour in the teeth of the hurricane.

The Japanese have shown how highly they esteem its value as steam coal, by purchasing large quantities for their Navy.

In the North Island coal is principally found near Auckland and Whangarei. This coal is in general intermediate in state of carbonation between the bituminous coals and lignites. No extensive seams of coal have as yet been found in New Zealand, though there is a very small deposit in early tertiary sediments at Cabbage Bay in the Hauraki peninsula, which owes its high percentage of fixed carbon to the metamorphism produced by the extension of flows of andesite. Some of the lignite seams of Canterbury, also, are said to be in part altered to Anthracite as a product of contact metamorphism.

Copper ores are found in both islands. The most common is a cupriferous pyrite. In one mine in the South Island important oxidation products are encountered giving very rich, though small, lodes above the water level. In the North Island the principal copper-bearing mineral is chalcopyrite associated with iron pyrites and molybdenite. This is near the sea in Wanganui County. In the same island, but some way

VALUE OF COAL TO THE NATION

from the coast, there is a copper deposit in Paleozoic strata, near Woodville.

Gold is found pretty generally throughout the dominion. One of the greatest gold mines in the world is the Waihi, in Ohinemuri County in the North Island. It is the centre of the goldfield in the Hauraki peninsula, part of the Auckland land district. The most important veins in this peninsula are in the andesitic flows, or in the fine-grained andesitic tuffs. They are mainly deposits by hot siliceous solutions carrying a great deal of hydrogen sulphide in pre-existing fissures, greatly enlarged by replacement of the wall rock. The gold in the Waihi mine is contained chiefly in a well demarcated ore-shoot with considerable horizontal continuation and with longitudinal extension from level to level. The metal is very rarely visible to the naked eye, though a considerable portion exists as free gold.

In the South Island the veins at Reefton consist chiefly of auriferous quartz. This contains a quantity of pyrites and often stibnite but rarely chalcopyrite. Reefton is in the County of Inangahua, and is at present the most important centre of quartz mining in the South Island.

Among the ancient crystalline schists and Paleozoic argillites and grauwackes which form so much of the strata of this island, quartz veins are common. They are in rocks which exhibit physiographically mature and sub-mature forms, and are therefore but the remnant of former veins, the upper, and probably richer, part having been removed in the extensive and varied denudation which the country has undergone.

The quartz, which in the South Island is of the highest value, is of the character described by the miners as "Magpie stone." This is merely quartz enclosing small angular fragments of argillite or grauwacke. These latter are the prevailing rocks of the Reefton district.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Platinum occurs associated with silver, but not in sufficient quantity to be of economic value, except when found with gold. Platiniferous quartz veins occur in the district of Westland, in the South Island, in sheets of altered magnesian eruptives. The ratio (approximate) of platinum and silver in the platiniferous quartz that has been analysed is seven parts of silver to one of platinum.

The precious "Greenstone" of commerce, the much valued Pounamu and Tangiwai of the Maori, the mineral Nephrite, is a massive actinolite or allied amphibole. It occurs in a talcose matrix, a product also, like the mineral nephrite itself of metamorphism of the magnesian eruptives.

Some light has been thrown on the general question of the genesis of ore deposits by the fact that a variety of metals are being deposited by the Hot Springs of New Zealand. Dr. J. S. Maclaurin, the Dominion Analyst, found on analysis of sinter taken from the rim of a very ebullient spring in the Maori settlement of Whakarewarewa, Rotorua County, that it contained gold to the amount of 1 dwt. 4 grs. per ton, and silver to the amount of 4 oz. 18 grs. per ton. A similar result has been yielded by observations at the hot springs in the centre of existing hydrothermal activity, the Taupo Volcanic zone in the centre of the North Island.

The geological history, of which some account has been attempted to be given, has aspects which are of more interest to the general reader than the facts, as solid as the rocks themselves, which tell of ancient formations and upheavals that may engross the mind of the student. These aspects, which deal with the utilization of the stones, ores, and metals evolved from what to the unscientific mind seems to be chaos, will be found in the descriptions of the mining and other like industries.

CHAPTER V

FLORA

GENERAL remarks—The pine—Value of Kauri gum—Beech forests—The Nikau palm—Open country vegetation.

IN this land of many surprises the botanist has his full share. How great the attraction it affords for the naturalist may be inferred from the large number of scientific men who have, ever since the time of Cook's discovery of the Islands in 1769, visited them for the special purpose of botanical research. We do not wonder at this when we contemplate the great number of its indigenous plants, which, owing to the varieties of the temperature according to locality, furnish a collection ranging from those of semi-tropical climes to those of Alpine regions.

The slight seasonable variations of temperature, the unusual amount of bright sunshine, with a sufficient rainfall and heavy dews, make these islands a veritable garden in which all plants grow in healthy luxuriance.

Though luxuriant in growth, the native vegetation, speaking generally, is lacking in brightness of colour. The only exception is when the crimson rata and pohutukawa are in flower. No field scarlet with poppies, no hill-side purple with heather, nor forest decked with the delicate tints of spring, or ablaze with the brilliant colouring of an English autumn will delight the eye. Before him are stretched endless tracts of dense bush whose trees of evergreen give a general sombreness to the vegetation, there being scarcely a deciduous tree in the whole country. The open country shows more variation in colouring. The Manuka and fern

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

land, the tussock-clad plains, all have their distinctive characteristics.

The tree grouping of the bush varies greatly according to locality, temperature, and soil. In the north part of the North Island the Kauri appears to be locally exclusive, no forest tree of any importance being found grouped with it. The same applies to the low-land forests of the South Island where the Rimu forms the characteristic feature of the bush.

In the sub-alpine western ranges of the South Island the *Nothofagus*, one of the beech family, is the "monarch of the bush."

The varieties of beech are themselves clannishly exclusive, for we find nothing but the *Nothofagus Solandri* in the Oxford and Alford forests, while the mountain districts are often clothed alone by the *Nothofagus Cliffortioides*. However, in many parts, especially in districts near the coast, this local exclusiveness is not observed. There we find an assortment of almost every variety of tree known in the dominion, growing side by side.

In the Auckland district we find the Kauri, *Agathis Australis*, which at one time must have dominated the whole district, for its deposits of gum are found over extensive areas showing that in those days the country must have been a vast Kauri forest.

The Kauri is the finest of all the pine family and is peculiar to the dominion. A forest of these beautiful trees presents an impressive appearance. Their gigantic pillar-like stems suggest the wonderful force of nature, for they rise often to 100 feet, not a twig interrupting the symmetry of their trunks for at least seventy feet from the ground. The girth of these trees is in proportion to their height. In Mercury Bay is to be found a specimen which is thirty-five feet in diameter. As it takes 300 years for one of these trees to attain a diameter of five

A GIANT PINE

feet, there is little doubt that this monster tree has few, if any, contemporaries in the world. In its early development the Kauri has two seed leaves which are narrow and flat, and thus it differs entirely from those of the pine family found in the northern hemisphere. The fertilizing flowers grow on separate cones on the same tree. The male catkin is larger than the female. The cone is almost round in shape, and is from two to three inches in diameter. It contains several seeds. Each seed is provided with a translucent wing which enables it to be carried long distances by the wind. In colour the bark is of a leaden grey. When seen in certain lights the trunk appears to be, as it were, surrounded by a haze-like mist. This peculiarity gives a most unusual and beautiful general effect to a Kauri forest, in a country where the atmosphere is so clear that every twig on a tree stands out boldly against the sky. There is seldom a decayed tree met with in a Kauri forest.

The wood, which is extremely durable and flexible, is used for masts and spars of ships, and for boat-building, as well as for furniture, doors, and window-sashes. It is of a rich amber shade, and takes a very fine polish. Mottled Kauri is much valued for decorative purposes. There is not a part of this tree which is not resinous. Withered leaves even exude drops of this valuable substance which will also collect in masses from the point of fracture of even a branch broken off from the trunk.

To give an idea of the value of Kauri gum as an asset in the dominion, it may be stated that nearly 10,000 tons were exported in the year 1907 at £57 per ton. The best class of gum frequently realises as much as £100 per ton. Up to the end of 1907 the value of the exported gum was over £12,000,000. It is used for various purposes, the highest grades of varnish being made from it. The gum varies in colour from pale yellow to golden brown; sometimes it is almost black. Beautiful transparent

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

specimens are found in which leaves and insects are embedded.

The undergrowth of this bush is not dense. In it are to be found clumps of Nikau palm and groups of a small species of fern tree. The wiry and delicate branches of the *Lygodium Articulatum* are here and there entwined with one another making an almost impenetrable screen.

The *Alseuosmia* displays its handsome dark crimson flowers whose delicate scent perfumes the air. Mosses and ferns carpet the ground and cover the tree roots. This undergrowth seems singularly suitable for the display of the glorious trunks of these giant trees to the greatest advantage.

It will ever be a cause of regret that owing to fires and the indiscreet destruction, for commercial purposes, of these Kauri forests, they are fast disappearing. It is to be hoped that the Government will consider the suggestion to preserve as a State forest the magnificent Waipona Kauri forest, thus leaving to future generations a magnificent heritage which will form one of the greatest attractions of visitors to the dominion.

Of beeches in New Zealand there are six species. Three of these are represented by magnificent forest trees attaining the height of over ninety feet, the remaining species being of smaller growth and never exceeding forty feet in height.

The beech forests of New Zealand are of two types. In one, the Oxford and Alford forests for example, the clannish exclusiveness prevails to which reference has already been made. Here side by side fine specimens of the *Nothofagus Solandri* are to be found raising their dark brown lofty trunks, which have a diameter of four feet or more, to a height of 100 feet, the wide-spreading horizontal branches either overlapping those of their neighbours or meeting them almost tip to tip.

BEECH AND BIRCH

A visit to a beech forest shortly before sunset leaves an impression not readily forgotten, for at this time rays can find their way among the interlacing branches, and light them up so that the bronze green leaves seem covered with burnished gold, throwing the dark stems into relief in a manner impossible to describe. An equally beautiful effect is produced by the silver rays of the rising moon which light up the bush till one almost fancies one is in fairyland.

The beech forests which clothe the mountain sides display no exclusiveness, for here all species of the *Nothofagus* are found growing together. As regards the soil it grows in, the beech is by no means exclusive, for it is found growing equally well in swampy ground and on the arid mountain side.

It ought to be here noted that the beech is incorrectly called by the settler the "birch." Its different varieties are known as the white, red or black, and silver birch. This error is quite pardonable as the tree resembles the birch more in growth and leaf than it does the graceful and large leafed beech of the northern hemisphere.

The sombreness of the foliage of the beech forest is lessened by the long trails of bearded lichens of a silver grey colour which hang from almost every branch and give a distinctive character to the trees.

The parasite *Loranthus Tetrapetalus*, a variety of mistletoe, grows in great masses on the branches of the beech trees, and nothing more gorgeous can be seen than these gloomy trees decorated with masses of its scarlet flowers. The undergrowth in the beech bush is not dense.

Whether taken as a separate tree or when massed in some vast forest, the beech tree has few, if any, equals in the dominion as regards beauty or elegance of form. It is a remarkable fact that no beeches are found anywhere on Stewart Island.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

In the mixed bush no one tree dominates to the exclusion of others, the Rata, Rimu, Nikau palm, Totara, Tree-fern and many other forest trees, endless shrubs, lianes, and ferns being here gathered together. By their vigorous growth they show that they have secured soil and situation suitable to their requirements.

Little or no light penetrates this dense bush, for the forest trees grow with scarcely a yard between trunk and trunk, their spreading branches often overlapping.

Overhead storms may rage and try the strength of the stoutest tree ; torrential rain may fall, but their destructive power is greatly lessened as regards the undergrowth by the protection afforded by the evergreen giants overhead. So dense is this tangled mass of vegetation that it is almost impossible to force a passage through it without the assistance of a slasher or billhook, the Supple-Jack and the Bush-Lawyer vieing with each other in barring the progress of the explorer.

From whatever aspect we view this bush, sombre must be the word applied to its colouring. Yet this does not detract from the great charm it possesses for all lovers of nature. What at first appears but a mass of leaves, more or less alike, is found on close investigation to consist of a number of plants varying greatly in form and shade. As the explorer cuts his way through this tangle of evergreen he will see creepers whose habits of growth are quite unknown to him. At every step he takes he will crush delicate ferns and mosses whose charms he has hitherto admired amongst the most treasured of those in his carefully tended fernery in the Old Country. Aloft he will see miniature hanging gardens whose beauty he longs to inspect. Nor will this long be denied him, for doubtless he will presently come across one of these gardens, which has slipped from its moorings, lying at the base of one of the giant trees. He will find that it consists of a tangled mass of thickly matted roots, which

PALMS AND TREE FERNs

form the base for many a healthy seedling. Such a one, should it be a climber, having this bed of ferns as its starting point, will begin by throwing its tendrils round the nearest trunk and then coiling itself round and round till it reaches the topmost branches, or else it will descend as a trailer to the ground, take root again, and once more ascend and add to the bewildering entanglement of the bush.

Should the explorer come suddenly on a dell where the Nikau palm has grouped itself in large numbers, he may be forgiven if for a moment he fancies himself transported to a tropical forest, for as he gazes on fan-like leaves interlacing each other as they curve upwards to the sky, he will realize that here is a growth quite unknown in the forests of the northern hemisphere. The bright green stems of the Nikau shine like polished marble, presenting such a smooth surface that the boldest creeper seldom, if ever, gets root hold. This gives a distinctive character to these Nikau stems in a bush where every tree is more or less covered with parasites. From these living pillars appear to spring Gothic-like arches formed by the long and graceful leaves that meet overhead and make a roof which for beauty and luxuriance could not be rivalled in the tropics.

For beauty of form and growth the Tree-fern is a close competitor with the Nikau palm. The explorer of the bush might hesitate to say which of these beautiful plants claims his greatest admiration. On their deeply scarred, dark brown trunks he sees graceful fronds forming overhead a canopy that often reaches to a height of from twenty-eight to forty feet. On the fronds are shades of brown, green, gold, and silver which, blended together, make a most harmonious colouring for this canopy of ferns. To add to the charm of the scene perchance the beautiful clematis has thrown its tendrils round the fern

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

tree trunks and climbing upwards has scattered among the fronds a shower of its beautiful white blossoms.

On all sides innumerable shrubs invite his inspection, many of them possessing foliage and flowers of remarkable beauty. As a rule, these flowers are small and deeply buried in the foliage, but they repay a close investigation, exhibiting as they do many peculiarities of shape and colouring.

Should the explorer visit the bush during the summer, he would find its fringe decked with flowers. At that season the lace bark is a mass of white bloom ; while the New Zealand bramble throws over the ground and shrubs alike its encircling branches covered with sprays of white flowers. The ribbon wood and the wild cherry look as if powdered with snow, so profusely are they covered with their beautiful and delicate white flowers. To complete this snow-white floral decoration the clematis and the large New Zealand convolvulus throw their mantle over many a shrub and tree.

It is incorrect to suppose that bush will die unless very large areas are left intact. A moderate-sized bush could be preserved in perfection if fenced round to prevent cattle from destroying the undergrowth. As surely as the latter is destroyed or much disturbed so surely will it affect the forest trees. One by one these will show signs of decay and in a few years the giants of the forest will have lost their vigour.

For the botanist, climbing plants of all kinds have a great attraction, and no country in the world with a temperate climate like New Zealand can show such a varied collection of these.

The cable-like stem of the *Rubus* may often be seen suspended from the extreme end of a branch some seventy feet above the ground, while the roots of the climber are at the base of the tree itself. There is no visible mode by which it could have attained its lofty position. The

THE PARASITE CONQUERS

method it has pursued is that in its early stages it mounted the forest tree, climbing in a cat-like fashion by clinging to the tree's trunk with the claws with which its stem and leaves are provided. In due time the tree top was reached. By degrees its stem grew heavier and became detached from the trunk. In falling it was caught by a branch, where it took firm hold and so remained suspended. The structure of the stem of these climbers is often very interesting and their power of holding great weights attached to them is quite wonderful.

Together with these climbers are to be found many varieties of epiphytes. There are several parasites indigenous to New Zealand. As regards number and variety of these two last-mentioned species New Zealand contains almost as many as are to be found in a dense tropical forest.

Unfortunately, utilitarian necessities have caused much of the natural beauty of the open country to disappear. What remains, however, cannot fail to attract attention by reason of its vastness and great variety.

There are, as already stated, different classes of vegetation found in the open country :—

1. Fern ;
2. Manuka scrub ;
3. The real scrub ;
4. Tussock grass.

(1) Bracken is to be found in all parts of both islands. In the Auckland district, however, and further north, this fern is the distinctive feature of the vegetation in the open country. Here, not many years ago, one might have seen square mile after square mile covered with a veritable forest of bracken growing to the height of from ten to thirteen feet. A great variety of heaths also formed then a feature of this fern land, but their insignificant flowers of pale yellow or white appearing amongst

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

their sage green leaves failed to brighten the generally sombre landscape.

(2) The term "scrub" is applied to two widely different families of plants. The Manuka (tea-tree) called by the settler "scrub," belongs to the Myrtle family, *Myrtaceae*, whereas the real scrub belongs to the genus *Coprosma*. The Tea-tree, Maori name "Manuka," is a shrub or tree, the latter sometimes attaining the height of thirty feet. It is the most common of all New Zealand plants and certainly the most beautiful. Its long, flexible branches covered from tip to base with white cup-shaped flowers, having centres of purple black, make it a most attractive plant for floral decorations of all kinds. Its leaves are leathery, very small and narrow, having sharp points. The seed is contained in woody capsules of a red brown colour. The seed is often to be seen side by side with the flower. The whole plant contains an aromatic oil. The early settlers occasionally made a decoction of it; hence it was called by them "tea-tree." The wood is used by the Maori to make paddles for their canoes. With it they formerly made spars and it is used much for post and rail fencing.

(3) The genus *Coprosma* contains most of the plants found in the real scrub that covers the wind-swept districts of Otago and Southland. Here, as in the southern outlying islands, these small plants prostrate themselves, and their wiry branches, having a natural tendency to intertwine with one another, are caused by the force of the wind to become a tangled mass resembling a thick wire mat. It is impossible to force a passage through this natural entanglement, and it is equally hopeless to try and walk any distance over it.

(4) This tussock formation may still be met with throughout both islands, but more generally in the South Island. In the plant formation of this part of the dominion will be found several varieties of the genus *Aciphylla* (The

A MORNING RIDE

parsley and carrot family); the Cabbage Tree or Palm-Lily; the Toi-toi, *Arundo Conspicua*; the Flax plant, *Phormium Tenax*, and the Nigger Head, *Carex Secta*, besides many interesting small shrubs. The tussock grass grows on detached hillocks of decayed vegetable matter varying in size according to age and the amount of the vegetable deposit, some hillocks are only a few inches, others from two to four feet high. On the Antipodes and other southern islands these hillocks are to be found as high as five feet. Coarse grasses of several varieties grow on these mounds. Their blades are generally wiry and as regards colouring are of a yellowish green or straw colour. A country covered with tussock reminds one of a field of over-ripe grass. Yet, notwithstanding the general monotony of this yellow-green colouring, the effect is far more pleasing than might be imagined. This is probably owing to the clearness of the atmosphere, which enables one to see plant life under the most favourable circumstances. At sunrise and sunset this open country is seen to the greatest advantage.

Who could forget the charm of an early morning ride across the native plain, with a lovely sky overhead rivalling that of Italy and an atmosphere of crisp air bathed in sunshine, making the tussock seem ablaze with gems; every blade of grass jewelled with dew drops, and a network of cobwebs sparkling with the latter thrown over flax, bush, and shrub alike. The graceful plumes of the toi-toi are seen waving to and fro in the breeze, while here and there clumps of shrubs stand out amongst the otherwise unbroken expanse of open country, and the stately cabbage tree gives an almost tropical appearance to this charming panorama.

The sunset lights on these plains must be seen to be thoroughly appreciated. At a distance one sees lofty mountains with snow-capped peaks bathed in the glowing rays of the setting sun. The shadows make the base and

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

sides of the mountains, sombre enough before, assume a still deeper hue. Across the plains the lingering rays of the sun light up the tussock grass, till it looks a veritable sea of golden waves on which float, like stately ships, patches of flax and clumps of verdant shrubs.

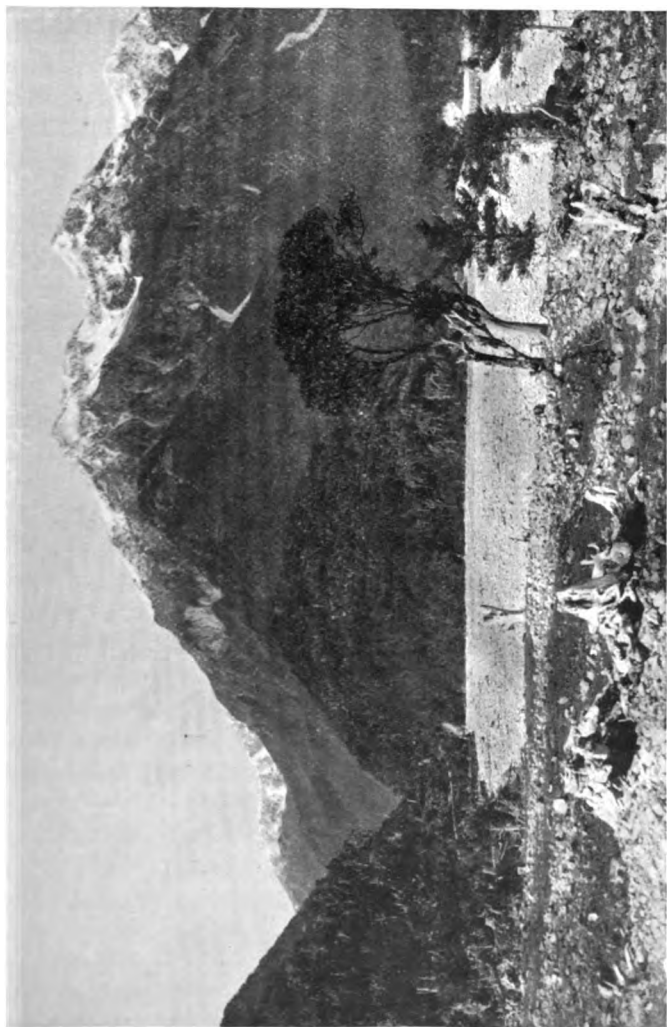
The early settler in the South Island must have been greatly struck with the vastness of these plains, for in that island the tussock formation was most highly developed. One plain alone contained no less than two-and-a-half million acres of this tussock-clad land representing a stretch of over 100 miles of open country. This tussock formation may still be met with throughout the South Island generally.

In the North Island where roads are made through the bush the tall trees and undergrowth are cleared for the length of a chain on either side. Immediately after the clearing has been made the "cabbage-tree" palm-lily, frequently shoots up in great numbers though there may be none of the same tree within a considerable area. The growth of these young palms by the roadside has a most pleasing effect, giving one the idea that they have been purposely planted to add to the attraction of the way-side.

The Alpine vegetation of New Zealand must be of the deepest interest to the botanist, not only on account of the number of its indigenous plants, but because of the remarkable fact that plants which in the northern hemisphere grow only at the highest altitudes, are here found in the lower passes and even in the beds of mountain streams.

The rugged inland range in the centre of the province of Nelson called the Spencer Mountains, as well as the other ranges in that part of the South Island, were some sixty years ago thoroughly explored and many unique species found.

The Southern Alps have received their full share of



SUGARLOAF, BEALEY GORGE

TREASURES FOR THE BOTANIST

exploration, and have proved a never-ending source of wonder and delight.

In sheltered spots on the low mountain passes of the Kaikoura range on the north-east side of the South Island may be found plots where a variety of native flowers grow in wild profusion. For beauty of form and diversity of shape this alpine foliage has no equal. It is true that all the flowers are white, but this does not detract from their charm for they seem to harmonise with the snow-capped mountains which tower over these alpine beds. In these natural gardens the botanist may make acquaintance with no less than thirty-five varieties of the genus *Celmisia*, which will be specially referred to further on. There are also to be found three varieties of *Ranunculus*, all of which have distinctive characteristics. Again, he will find in the genus *Cotula* a unique specimen. From the above it will be seen that the botanist need not be a mountaineer to enable him to study alpine flora, for he will find exceptional plants growing within his easy reach.

The Chatham Islands can boast of many indigenous trees, shrubs, and herbaceous plants, none more beautiful can be imagined than the noble *Myosotidium Nobile* (the Chatham Island Lily). The inaccessibility of the southern outlying islands allows only a favoured few to study the habits of their varied and unique flora. Of the Auckland and Campbell Islands it may be said that there is not on the surface of the globe a group of islands perfectly isolated and limited in extent which can boast of two such beautiful plants peculiar to themselves as the *Pleurophyllum speciosum* and the *Cotula plumosa*.

The variety of indigenous plants, as already stated, is very numerous, and it will only therefore be possible here to give a short account of some of those which seem to possess a special interest. Amongst the forest

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

trees the pine family form a unique and interesting group.

The Rimu (*Dacrydium Cupressinum*) is perhaps the most graceful and attractive tree in the New Zealand bush, its pale green drooping branches forming a striking contrast to the erect and rigid growth of the other pines. The fruit is tiny with a red cup, somewhat resembling an acorn, holding a blue-black seed. The contrast between the bright berries and the pale green foliage has a charming effect. The timber is in colour either red or yellow, and beautifully marked.

The Matai (*Podocarpus Spicata*), when young or even up to twenty years of age, has a drooping and fern-like foliage of a dark red colour on copper-tinted branches. When mature it is a spreading tree with erect and rigid branches. The wood is most valuable and takes so high a polish as to give a reflection nearly equal to that of a looking-glass. Planks of this timber when exposed to the weather for any length of time become so hard that a nail cannot be driven into the wood unless previously bored.

The Kawaka (*Libocedrus Doniana*) is a lofty pine sometimes reaching a height of 100 feet and more. The young tree has foliage resembling that of the one last mentioned. The timber is of a dark red colour. It is beautifully marked and is much valued for ornamental work.

The Totara (*Podocarpus Totara*) and the White Pine (*Podocarpus Dacrydioides*; Maori name, "Kahikatea") resemble each other, inasmuch as their trunks are often branchless to a height of seventy to ninety feet from the ground. The timber of the Totara is highly prized where extreme durability is desired. This is especially the case when the heart only is used for any work underground. A remarkable fact, however, in connection with this timber may be mentioned. When used for fencing posts

MONARCHS OF THE BUSH

in sand it gets worn away at the surface of the ground much more quickly than posts made of Matai wood. The trunks have for years been used by the Maori for making canoes, some of which are eighty feet in length. The foliage of the Totara somewhat resembles that of the English yew. The White Pine when young has flat, bronze-coloured leaves, which become scale-like in appearance as it grows to maturity. The tree is often covered with masses of red berries which are quite delicate in flavour. The timber is very tough and is used in the manufacture of butter-boxes and is pulped for making paper. It is liable to be affected with dry rot and is, therefore, not of much value for building purposes.

The Kauri (*Agathis Australis*), which is the giant of the New Zealand bush, has already been described.

The Titoki (*Alectryon Excelsum*) is one of the best known of the bush trees, and grows to a height of about sixty feet. The distinguishing feature of this tree is the great beauty of its fruit which grows in large clusters and may be said to be the handsomest to be met with in New Zealand. The exterior brown shell-like cap contains a rough, bright scarlet case, much resembling a raspberry from which appears a black shiny seed.

The Puriri (*Vitex Lucens*) is a fine tree from fifty to sixty feet high and has large handsome, bright green leaves and bright red flowers. The wood is most valuable on account of its durability under nearly all conditions.

The Pukatea (*Laurelia-Novæ-Zelandiæ*) is one of the loftiest of forest trees, having been known to attain the height of 160 feet. The trunk is from three to five feet in diameter, and is often flanked by spreading buttresses. The laurel-like dark green shiny leaves form a marked contrast to the pale grey trunk and branches.

The Honey Suckle (*Knightia Excelsa*) is a handsome tree of erect growth often reaching the height of 100 feet. The foliage is dark olive green, the leaves are oblong and

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

about four to eight inches in length. The flowers, which somewhat resemble a bottle-brush in shape, grow on a stem about four inches long and two inches in diameter. Their texture is velvety and they are dark crimson. The wood is beautifully marked, of a greyish colour pencilled with a darker shade, and is much used for ornamental work.

There are seven varieties of the Rata (*Metrosideros*) peculiar to New Zealand. Five of them are climbers, of which one (*Metrosideros Robusta*), the North Island Rata, is especially worthy of mention. This species encircles a tree with its vines eventually crushing out its life and raising itself into a handsome forest tree of from fifty to 100 feet. It has dark green myrtle-like foliage. Its clusters of crimson flowers, in shape like a "Turk's head broom," are massed together on the ends of every branchlet. The bud presents a pleasing contrast to the dark foliage, being covered with a silver down. This climber often germinates as an epiphyte high up in the forks of a tree. The seeds are very light and are blown by the wind up to the highest branches. From on high this climber throws down its vines; these take root and throw out other rootlets which grow together round the base of the tree. From these grow new vines, which gradually enclose the tree stem.

The Shining Rata (*Metrosideros Lucida*) is a tree which grows to a height of about sixty feet. It has dark shining leaves which, when young, are smooth and silky. The stamens are about one inch long, and are of a dark crimson colour. A variety has been met with that has a yellow flower. This tree is to be seen to perfection when at Christmas time it is in full flower covering the slopes of the Southern Alps with a blaze of crimson blossom. It is worth while making a journey of thousands of miles to see a forest of these magnificent trees in full bloom.

FOREST TREES IN FLOWER

Everywhere throughout New Zealand, however, where the Rata grows, the mass of colour formed by these glorious flowers, is a thing to be remembered, particularly when viewed from high ground from a little distance.

There is also a small white-flowering Rata, a climbing shrub which grows in the North Island adding greatly to the beauty of the bush.

The Tawa (*Beilschmiedia Tawa*) is a forest tree of from sixty to seventy feet high. Its leaves are narrow and pale green. It has numerous slender branches, giving it an elegant appearance. The flower is insignificant and yellowish white; the fruit resembles a damson. It grows abundantly in hilly districts. The timber is of no especial value.

The Downy Rata (*Metrosideros Tomentosa*; Maori name, "Pohutukawa") is described by many botanists as the handsomest flowering tree of the New Zealand flora. It attains the height of seventy feet. Its foliage is singularly attractive and, when the breeze moves its leaves gently to and fro, the contrast of their dark green surface to their soft silver linings, gives this tree a character purely its own. Its massive bushy-shaped clusters of flowers composed of thousands of scarlet stamens with golden tips have in the sunlight a dazzling effect. The rosette-shaped bunches of snow-white buds, with their soft velvety covering, give an additional charm to this handsome tree. It rarely grows far from the sea. It prefers rocky ground and may often be seen clinging to the cliff side, its roots and boughs touching the water. When passing through the Hauraki Gulf and approaching the shores of Auckland at Christmas time, this tree is seen in its fullest glory.

The Karaka family (*Corynocarpaceæ*): this genus has only two species. The Karaka (*Corynocarpus laevigata*)

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

is found only in New Zealand. The other is found in New Caledonia and the adjacent islands. It is a very handsome tree with bright dark green laurel-like leaves. Its clusters of bright golden-orange damson-shaped berries are very striking. It is a favourite tree of the Maori, by whom the fruit is much used. The kernel is extremely poisonous.

The Puta-puta-weta (*Carpodetus Serratus*) is a tree about twenty feet in height. Its growth is remarkable, its branches spreading in a fan-like manner. Its leaves are beautifully veined and are marked like mottled marble. It has small white flowers, which are sweetly scented, and are buried deeply in the leaves. The fruit has the peculiarity of taking twelve months to ripen. Fruit and flowers may often be seen on the same branch. This tree proves most attractive to that unattractive grub, the Weta, which bores its longitudinal tunnels in all directions through the trunk.

Of the Matipo family (*Pittosporaceae*) the *Pittosporum Ralphii* may be mentioned. This variety is peculiar for the graceful growth of its branches, being less compact than the two former. It is found chiefly in the North Island, and is very easy to cultivate. It has dark crimson bell-like flowers with golden anther tips. The foliage when young is almost white, and this combined with the crimson of the flower and the bright green of the matured leaves, gives us a really charming large shrub.

The Tree Fuchsia (*Fuchsia Excorticata*) is a tree from 10 to 45 feet in height. Its bark is of a light red colour. The leaves are delicate in texture and bright green with a white under-surface. The colouring of the flower is rendered very striking by the contrast of the beautiful waxy yellow of the calyx and the intense blue of the pollen. The flowers possess an unusual amount of honey.

Of the genus *Veronica* there are many species. Of these *Veronica Speciosa* is the handsomest. Its long

A UNIQUE SPECIMEN

flower stalks are closely packed with numbers of tiny purple flowers. Its silvery young branches and glossy green leaves make it a very noticeable shrub.

The genus *Nothopanax* contains five species, all indigenous to New Zealand. They consist of shrubs or trees remarkable for the variation of leaf-form to be found on the same tree as it passes through its different stages till it reaches maturity. Even when matured there is often a striking difference in the leaf-form on the same tree. Nearly all these varieties are suitable for cultivating as ornamental trees. Their foliage is handsome, and their branching limbs give a lightness and elegance to their form.

There is only one species of the genus *Meryta* to be found in New Zealand. It is the Puka (*Meryta Sinclairii*), and is, perhaps, one of the most remarkable trees belonging to the New Zealand flora. It is certainly one of the rarest. It usually grows from twelve to twenty feet high, though fine specimens have attained the height of thirty-five feet. Its foliage is most distinctive in character. The leaves are very large, measuring from nine to twenty inches in length and from four to ten in breadth. They are of a dark bottle-green colour, the edge of the leaf being waved. The flower is greenish yellow and grows on erect stems at the extremity of the branches. The fruit is abundant, of oblong shape about three-quarters of an inch long, and is of a rich purplish glossy black. For many years only one specimen of this tree was known to exist. It grew at Paparaumu, Whangaruru Harbour, in the Auckland district. It is easy to cultivate and grows with great rapidity. A specimen under cultivation is reported to have grown in eight years to a height of eighteen feet, while its spreading crown of branches measured sixteen feet in diameter and the trunk had a circumference of twenty-four inches.

Hinau (*Elaeocarpus Dentatus*). This shrub is always

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

the first to appear after the bush has been destroyed. It is a most attractive shrub, and when a good specimen is met with it is often so completely covered with masses of cream-coloured flowers resembling sprays of lilies-of-the-valley that they bury the leaves in their profusion.

Houi (*Hoheria Populnea*), is called by the settlers, "The Lace Bark," on account of the inner bark being perforated with a lace-like tracery. The Maori are said to have made a decoction of this plant, which possessed sedative qualities.

Ribbon-wood (*Gaya Lyallii*) is a beautiful shrub found only on the mountains in the South Island. It sheds its leaves and has autumnal tints. It has a white cherry-like blossom, and when in full bloom in March it makes a startling contrast to the sombre bush. Its leaves of tender green add much to its beauty.

The Thick-leaved Lance-wood (*Pseudopanax Crassifolium*; Maori name, "Horoeka") is a handsome spreading tree from twenty to sixty feet high, with a trunk ten to twenty inches in diameter. The difference between the infant plant and the matured tree is so great that at one time they were thought to be different trees. This was the case when the tree was discovered by Dr. Solander, who accompanied Captain Cook on his first voyage. The seedlings have five oblong or oval shaped leaves growing close together at the top of the stalk at right angles to it. These are quickly succeeded by narrow linear leaves half-an-inch broad, deeply toothed, and of a rough texture. The single stem often reaches a height of twenty feet, and has with its hanging leaves much the appearance of a gigantic closed umbrella. It remains in this state often for thirty years, when a great transformation takes place. Branches are developed, and the tree becomes round-headed.

THE SUPPLE-JACK LILY

The Yellow Kowhai (*Sophora Tetraptera*) is a handsome tree occasionally reaching a height of forty feet. It is found growing in great numbers on river flats. It is one of the few New Zealand trees which lose their leaves. It is the earliest tree to flower. Its sulphur-yellow flowers, with their old gold calyx, grow in pendant clusters at the ends of the numerous short branchlets. The flower appears when the leaves are in bud, at which time they are covered with a golden brown down, then the whole tree resembles a golden ball. The wood is beautifully red, pencilled with grey.

The genus *Clianthus* has one representative, and that perhaps the most gorgeous of New Zealand's flowering shrubs, the Red Kowhai (*Clianthus Puniceus*). It is a small shrub with light green silky branches, leaves pinnate. Its flowers of bright scarlet resemble in shape a parrot's beak. They grow in masses. This plant in a wild state is gradually disappearing from the New Zealand flora and now is only to be found on the Great Barrier Island.

To the Lily family (*Liliaceæ*) belong in New Zealand seven genera. Of these the Supple-Jack (*Rhipogonum Scandens*) is the last plant one would expect to find classed under the lily tribe. It is a curiously vigorous climber to be found in every bush. Its leaves are leathery, a dark olive green colour, oblong in shape, and are found in any number at the ends of the shoots. The flower is greenish and insignificant; it grows on straight stems and is succeeded by handsome crimson berries about the size of peas.

The genus *Cordyline* has five species. The Cabbage Tree, or Palm Lily (*Cordyline Australis*), is the only one that need be mentioned. From its very tropical appearance it forms the most marked feature in New Zealand landscape. The young plants with their compact heads

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

of long grass-like leaves have a pleasing effect when growing out of a bed of ferns and mosses. As the tree matures, its long bare stem often spreads out into a number of branches, each branch crowned with a bushy head of leaves. The white flower is sweet scented, and grows on drooping stems. The fruit is waxy and of a pink colour.

The genus *Phormium* has only one representative, the remarkable species *Phormium Tenax*, which is found nowhere in the world except in New Zealand and the Norfolk Islands. The lance-like leaves have no foot-stalk, but spring immediately from the crown of the plant forming a handsome clump often many feet in diameter. The dark brown flower-stalks are hollow and of a fibrous texture, often reaching a height of fifteen feet. The flowers are more curious than beautiful. They are of a red-brown colour and resemble as to shape a large crimson salvia. This plant is most useful to the settler, supplying him with an excellent substitute for string and rope, as even in its green state it is pliable. Its strength is most remarkable. A large industry has sprung up in the preparation of its fibre for home and export purposes. The plant is said to possess valuable medicinal properties, but up to the present none but Maori and bushmen have used it for curative purposes.

There is only one representative of the Passion-flower family, *Passiflora Tetrandra*. It is a climber with glossy leaves one and a half to four inches long. The delicate flowers are green with beautiful coronas of white or yellow filaments. The fruit is very handsome and of a bright orange colour.

To the genus *Clematis* belong nine species, two having pure white flowers, the remaining seven having greenish yellow, or yellowish. The most conspicuous of the species

SETTLER'S VEGETABLE FRIEND

is the *Clematis Indivisa*. The leaves are thick and glossy. The flower is star-shaped and of a pure white colour. It blooms in great profusion, and when its tendrils are looped from tree to tree, these masses of beautiful white flowers light up in a charming manner the dense green bush. The feathery seed is as attractive as the flower, as it has long silky silvery plume-like heads. The Maori call this plant *Pua-wananga*—the sacred or sanctified flower.

The Prostrate Fuchsia (*Fuchsia Procumbens*) is, as its name denotes, a creeper. It is an exceedingly pretty plant when grown in a flower pot, as its slender stems, from six to eighteen inches in length, will completely cover the pot. The plant is a profuse bloomer. The colouring of its flowers is most striking. The berries are much larger than the flower and of a shining red colour. It is to be found on sandy or rocky places.

The Orchid family (*Orchidaceæ*) has many genera and species in New Zealand, but they are mostly insignificant bloomers, though possessing many unique attractions for the lover of nature. *Corysanthes Macrantha* is the largest of all the species. It grows in swampy ground in both islands. Its leaves are very thick and about one and a half inches broad. The flower, with a diameter of about one inch, is of a deep purple colour. It has long-tailed sepals and petals resembling in shape a cockroach.

The New Zealand Edelweiss (*Helichrysum Grandiceps*) is a tufted herb with a stem from one to seven inches high. Its leaves are silvery white on both sides. It has an abundance of white velvety flowers.

To the genus *Carmichaelia* belong two of the most remarkable and characteristic plants of the New Zealand Flora. *Carmichaelia Nana* is a small sub-alpine shrub of only four inches in height, while *Carmichaelia Flagelliformis* attains a height of sometimes four feet. Both are

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

distinguished by the absence of leaves on the matured plant. They have grooved, flattened branches, the groove being pale green and the rib yellow. The flowers are often dainty in form. They are of various colours : white, red, or lilac. A strange appearance is given to these shrubs by the blunted end of the branches, suggesting that the plant has been clipped.

The genus *Myosotidium* has a flower which for beauty of form and colouring can have few if any equals. Its leaves are of the richest dark green colour and very shining, and they are deeply furrowed. The velvety flowers of azure blue with purple circle round the golden eye, grow in large flat clusters on long flower stems, and are succeeded by seeds the size of a hazel nut. This plant is found only on the Chatham Islands, and in a wild state is fast disappearing. It is, however, largely cultivated.

The representatives of the Daisy, Dandelion, and Thistle family in New Zealand are, strange to say, in most cases shrubs, such as the genus *Olearia*, which has ten species, all of which are indigenous to New Zealand. *Olearia Insignis* is a shrub from one to eight feet in height. It has broad, shiny leaves covered beneath with a silver powder. It has large daisy-like flowers with ragged white rays.

Notothlaspi Rosulatum. This plant has been described by Kirk as one of the most remarkable known. It is a small fleshy branched Alpine herb growing in pyramidal form, though it has little or no stem. It forms a rosette or cushion of leaves, which, when young, are clothed with ribbon-like hairs. When the plant matures the leaves become glabrous, or nearly so. The leafless flower-stalk is about the thickness of one's finger, and is crowned with a dense mass of flowers, which have a sweet orange-like odour. It grows on shingly ground and its long tap-root

AN INSECT DEVOURER

is supplied with every drop of rain that falls on the plant, the leaves being so arranged that they overlap each other like the tiles of a house and the rain runs off them as if from a roof.

The Sundew family, *Droseraceæ*, has four species belonging to it, all more or less remarkable for their carnivorous habits. *Drosera Auriculata* is a most interesting plant with pink or purple flowers. If an insect chances to alight on the flower it is instantly enclosed, and when the flower re-opens, nothing remains of the insect but the dried skin. In twelve hours it will reduce to shreds a piece of beef steak.

The genus *Ranunculus*. There is no more stately alpine plant than the *Ranunculus Lyallii*, often called by the settlers the Mount Cook Lily. It greatly resembles the English King-cup, only that its flowers are pure white and of a waxy texture. It has an erect juicy stem, and its leaves, dark green and glossy, are cup-shaped, often measuring fifteen inches across.

The genus *Caltha* (*Caltha Novæ-Zelandiæ*) is a stout, fleshy, alpine plant with yellow flowers. It has large heart-shaped leaves whose construction is most remarkable. The stomata are found on the upper surface of the leaves, and its apparatus for storing water is in the lower part. At the base of the leaf the lobe is bent upwards, or is even turned right over upon the blade.

It is remarkable that many of the Ivyworts are to be found only on the most remote of the southern outlying islands. Their tropical-like growth suggests a *habitat* in every respect dissimilar to that in which we find them. The soil in which these plants grow is composed of the fibrous roots, dead leaves and wood of the *Olearia*, a handsome shrub which grows in great abundance, together with a thick deposit of guano. It is to the latter's stimulating and invigorating powers that the vegetation

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

of these desolate islands owes its vigour and richness of growth.

The Polar *Stilbocarpa* (Maori name, "Punui") is a fine herbaceous plant growing plentifully along the shores of the Auckland, Antipodes, Macquarie, and Campbell Islands.

To the genus *Pleurophyllum* belong two species of large perennial succulent herbs. *Pleurophyllum Speciosum* is a very handsome plant, its distinguishing features being the large clusters of purple flowers crowning the heads of erect stems often three feet in height. The leaves, which measure from six to eighteen inches long and from four to ten inches in breadth, are thick and leathery with little or no stalk, and have deeply-marked longitudinal parallel ribs from fifteen to twenty in number. When this noble plant is seen growing in masses as it does in the Auckland and Campbell Islands, it fills the beholder with wonder that a plant of such luxurious growth should be found on these desolate islands. There are on these islands other species of this genus which are all indigenous.

Of the genus *Celmisia* there are at least thirty-five species and these are all indigenous. This genus is found in no other part of the world except in Australia and Tasmania, where one species is to be met with. These plants form the most attractive of the Alpine flora. The large daisy-like flowers are very similar in each species, the only difference being in size. The great difference, however, between the various species is in the leaves. *Celmisia Coriacea* has broad, leathery leaves, their upper surface is woolly, and the lower one is covered with a silver down. In length they are from eight to twenty inches and from three-quarters to three inches in width. They have deep longitudinal furrows running the whole length of the leaf. The flower-stalks are densely covered with a silvery cotton down and are from ten to thirty-six

“VEGETABLE SHEEP”

inches in height. The flower is from one and a half to four inches across. The rays are very numerous and spreading. This plant is easily cultivated, and when it is, it develops peculiarities not observed in its wild state. This genus is found in the Alpine districts of both islands.

To the genus *Haastia* belongs *Haastia Pulvinaris*, a most remarkable shrub, which for its eccentric habits of growth and appearance probably has no equal. It is found growing in low, compact masses, often covering twelve to twenty square feet. Its branches are all the same length, and grow side by side so closely that it is impossible to pass one's finger between them. The growth of the leaves is still more remarkable. They are half-an-inch in length, and are so closely packed together that they overlap till the individual leaf is indistinguishable in the jumbled and tangled mass of foliage. In exposed positions these plants develop a woolly hair with which the leaves are quite covered. This is possibly a protection to the plant as it grows in most exposed positions, and often at an elevation of 6,000 feet above the sea-level. Its woolly hair coupled with its shape, which has an outline somewhat resembling that of a sheep, has caused it to be called the “vegetable sheep.” Many botanists consider it one of the most remarkable plants in the vegetable kingdom.

To the genus *Raoulia* belong three species, all small alpine herbs growing in dense tufted masses. The leaves are small and often silky or woolly.

As regards imported trees and plants, they are too numerous to be given here in a detailed list. From every clime have been brought fruit and ornamental trees. Here may be seen the noble pines of Norway sheltering from wind and storm the graceful palms of Africa. The oak, the elm, and the beech may have twining round their

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

trunks some delicate creeper from Madeira and California, and under their shade may grow masses of primroses, and in strange contrast with these simple English flowers may be seen clumps of stately Arum Lilies.

In the North Island grow the lemon, the orange, the persimmon, the loquat, the tree-tomato of Japan, and many other semi-tropical fruits. In both islands flourish English fruit-trees. To give an idea how up-to-date the dominion is in the matter of importation of the new varieties of fruit trees on a large scale, it may be mentioned there were sent for exhibition in London in 1908, 300 varieties of apples, and thirty-seven of pears. The astonishing rapidity of the growth of imported trees has already been mentioned. The following facts may be given in illustration. In the North Island a *Pinus Insignis* was planted in 1883 and was cut down in 1899, when it was found to measure 100 feet in height, while its trunk was nine feet in circumference.

This remark applies also to the smaller plants that have been imported. For example, at Sumner, in the South Island, in December, 1908, a hedge of sweet peas was found to have attained the great height of eleven feet.

Weeds have, unfortunately, been imported in grass and other seeds, and have taken only too kindly to the soil. So serious was the outlook of the damage they were causing that the Government passed an Act, called the "Noxious Weed Act," compelling settlers to pay more attention to the condition of their lands, and prevent the spread of injurious vegetation.

That the climate will alter many of the characteristics of imported plants is more than probable; that in years to come they will furnish the botanist with interesting studies and reflections as to the effect of change of *habitat* in the case of many members of the vegetable kingdom.

New Zealand has been described as the "Land of

STAMPING OUT WEEDS

Ferns." Their name is legion. The fern-leaf is the emblem of the dominion. This badge was worn by the men of the contingents who fought in South Africa. The Government have asked the home authorities to allow them to substitute the fern-leaf for the laurel wreath, which now forms the centre of the flag used by His Excellency the Governor.

Much of the beauty of the bush, river banks, and even arid mountain sides is due to the profusion and luxuriance of the fern growth.

CHAPTER VI

FAUNA

THE only indigenous mammal—Other animals introduced—
Amphibia—Reptilia—The Tuatara—Insects—Birds—The
Kiwi—The Kea—The Tui—Sea birds—Game birds.

IF to the botanist the varied and large percentage of indigenous flora of these islands is a never-ending source of wonder and delight, so to the zoologist must be the fauna. He is not confronted by a bewildering number of different specimens. He may well be startled to find that in a country peculiarly suitable for supporting animal life there is only one order of indigenous mammals—the Chiroptera.

This order includes the genus *Mystacops*. One species, short-tailed bat, *Mystacops Tuberculatus*, is peculiar to New Zealand. This bat is of considerable interest to the naturalist, as it possesses physical peculiarities found in no other species.

The interesting little creature is fast disappearing. This is not to be wondered at when it is remembered that the bush was its *habitat*. When the bush was being felled, hundreds of bats might have been found in the hollows of decayed trees. The fires which followed destroyed them in great numbers.

It rested with man to add new mammals to New Zealand's single genus. Upwards of 500 years ago these islands, after centuries of complete isolation, began to be inhabited by man, who added to the fauna he found there two mammals. When the Maori landed they brought with them the dog and the rat. With regard to the former, Mr. Anderson, who accompanied Captain Cook on his third voyage, says it had rough hair and

DISAPPEARANCE OF THE BAT

pricked ears and somewhat resembled the common sheep dog. The Maori bred numbers of these dogs for eating, the flesh being greatly esteemed by them. Captain Cook described it as sweet and delicate in flavour. These dogs fed principally on fish. Several were taken on board Cook's ships to be used as food. At first they seemed dull and stupid, but afterwards, when made pets of, showed an average amount of intelligence. They were timid creatures and have quite disappeared.

The rat still exists and has taken its toll in the destruction of bird life.

After the lapse of 400 years, one more addition was made to the mammals. In 1773 Captain Cook, on his second voyage round the world, let loose three pigs in Queen Charlotte's Sound. Their descendants soon stocked the bush and some of them are still to be found in scattered spots in both islands.

To give an idea of the astonishing increase of these animals, Dr. Hochstetter, who visited the colony in 1862, stated that three men in twenty months killed on 250,000 acres, 25,000 pigs, and pledged themselves to kill 15,000 more.

The number of mammals was again added to sixty-four years ago. Settlers, who then arrived from Great Britain, brought with them sheep and cattle, horses, cats, and dogs.

The colonists deplored the absence of game and set themselves the task of introducing from the Motherland and elsewhere wild animals and birds.

The Rabbit was the first to be introduced, and taking kindly to the open tussock land, increased by hundreds of thousands yearly. Vast tracts of land were made practically useless by its ravages. The matter became so serious that innumerable Acts were passed to ensure the destruction of the rabbit and settlers were compelled to take steps to that end.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

One of the means adopted was the introduction of the ferret, the stoat, and the weazel. These vermin helped to destroy the rabbit, but this step has often been bitterly regretted on account of the harm they have done.

The Hare was introduced and has taken kindly to its new surroundings, and being so easily kept within bounds, can do no appreciable harm.

The Acclimatization Societies introduced many years ago both Red and Fallow Deer with great success. More recently the Axis Deer (or Chital) and the Sambur from India as well as the Moose from America, have been let loose in the various forest reserves.

Wallabies and Kangaroos were introduced by the late Sir George Grey and let loose on his island home at Kawau, where they have flourished.

The Opossum has been introduced from Australia and has developed better and thicker fur than in its own country.

On the west coast of the South Island, in the mountainous country surrounding Pelorus Sound, herds of wild Goats are to be found which attain an unusually large size. The variety of colours of their coats show that the animal was previously domesticated.

In the Forest Reserve near Mount Cook, the Shar of the Himalayas has been turned out and finds its new home most suitable.

Horses, which have become wild, are to be met with on the Kaingaroa Plains between Taupo and Napier. The race has much degenerated, but they are of some value as their skins are used for making motor coats and rugs.

Of the Cetacea, two are worthy of special mention. One, the Pigmy Whale (*Berardius*), is only to be found in the seas around New Zealand. It therefore may be said to rival the short-tailed bat in exclusiveness. It is a small animal of its kind ; its length seldom exceeding ten feet. It is of little value to the whaler.

THE PROTECTED WHALE

The other, the Goose-Beak Whale (*Ziphius Cavirostris*), belongs to a species becoming very rare. Its colouring is peculiarly striking, as its back is blue-black, while the rest of its body is silvery white. Its habits are solitary. Those who have visited Nelson and seen "Pelorus Jack" disporting himself round their steamer will be interested to hear that he belongs to this species. For years he has devoted his attention to steamers entering and leaving Pelorus Sound. He always appears at the same spot and follows a steamer to a certain distance. He repeats his attentions to each steamer that approaches. Many have been the suggestions as to why he lived this solitary life. Now that it has been proved beyond doubt that he is a goose-beaked whale no further explanation is required. The Government passed an Act protecting him for five years on account of the great interest he has aroused. In the order Carnivora are found the Sea Leopard, the Sea Lion, the Sea Elephant and the Fur Seal.

The Sea Leopard (*Ogmorhinus Leptonyx*; Maori name, "Pakaka") is a native of the ice packs of the Antarctic regions. It visits New Zealand on rare occasions when it wanders as far north as the Chatham Islands. It is extremely savage and will attack a man.

The Sea Lion (*Arctocephalus Hookeri*; Maori name, "Wakaha") is a formidable looking animal. The male has his neck and shoulders covered with long coarse hair which he raises when enraged, uttering at the same time a loud roar. Over rough tussock country they can easily outrun a man. When roused the Sea Lion is very fierce. Fortunately a smart blow on the tip of the nose with a stout stick will render it temporarily senseless. The male is of a blackish grey colour, while the female is of a pale grey, golden buff or silver, and is spotted with creamy white. The fur is of no value.

The Sea Elephant (*Macrorhinus Leoninus*) is, according to Captain Hutton, occasionally seen on Campbell Island,

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

but its principal home is on the Macquaries. It is an enormous creature of very quiet disposition, and spends most of its time basking on the rocks. The old ones have a species of trunk.

The Fur Seal (*Arctocephalus Forsteri*; Maori name, "Kekeno") is found on the Snares, Bounty Islands, and the Sounds of the South Island, also on the Seal rocks off Westport on the same island.

When in 1792 the sealers visited these inhospitable shores they found millions of seals. In Dusky Bay one vessel alone secured 4,500. For about ten years the sealers visited New Zealand intermittently, but in 1803 a systematic trade was commenced by a Sydney firm. This for a time proved a most lucrative undertaking, but the wholesale slaughter, regardless of season, nearly exterminated the species, and the trade had to be abandoned. The Government, fearing the total disappearance of the Fur Seal, passed an Act proclaiming a close season.

Of amphibious animals, New Zealand again displays a great deficiency, there being but one solitary species: *Liopelma Hochstetteri*—the New Zealand Frog. Of its habits little is known, except that it occupies a limited area, being found on the Coromandel Peninsula at Huia on the north side of the Manakau Harbour, and at Opotiki, in the same district. It lives in rock pools and hill streams, and is fast dying out.

There are no venomous reptiles of any sort or kind in the dominion, whereas in Australia many deaths occur annually owing to their presence.

The harmless Lizard is the sole reptile of New Zealand. It is represented by fourteen varieties of the true lizard, and one variety of a lizard-like reptile, the Tuatara. Of the true lizard, only one need be referred to, the *Naultinus Grayi* (the Green Lizard; Maori name, "Kakariki"), and that on account of the superstitious dread that the Maori have of it. The reptile itself, whether

THE MARVELLOUS REPTILE

dead or alive, was an object of universal fear among them, albeit it has a length of only six and a half inches.

We now come to the most ancient and most remarkable of living reptiles in the whole world, the Tuatara (*Sphenodon Punctatus*). It is about twenty inches long. In its structure it shows great peculiarities. It has an affinity to the crocodile, having at the same time bird-like ribs. The jaws are very strong, and the teeth, which are serrated above and below, interlock, enabling it to grip very firmly anything it lays hold of. It has a rough skin of a greenish yellow colour. The females are larger than the males and darker.

But the greatest peculiarity of this reptile is the presence of a third eye placed between and somewhat behind the two serviceable eyes. The study of this peculiarity has done much towards finding the solution of a problem of the greatest possible interest to the whole scientific world—a problem which has been looked upon as one of the most difficult in biology.

Lying above the centre of the brain of man is a little gland named from its pine-cone shape, the pineal gland. Until recent years the function of this gland was entirely unknown, and had been the subject of the strangest guesses. In times past, foiled in their endeavour to account for the mysterious little gland, the old anatomists got over the difficulty and smothered their doubts by concluding that as the pineal gland was not anything else, it must be "the seat of the soul." So great a philosopher as Descartes, who died in the year 1650, accepted this absurdity without a murmur. This was solemnly passed on from book to book up to the very end of the eighteenth century. In the nineteenth century they honestly owned that nobody knew anything at all about it, but hoped that research would some day lead to the truth. Several anatomists of that century had fallen upon what has finally proved to be the right guess, but it was not until

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

a few years ago that which guess was the right one was decided once for all.

Then the dissection of the head of a Tuatara led to the discovery of the origin of the pineal gland in vertebrates. It was found that in the centre of the Tuatara's forehead, between the two eyes and only hidden by a thin membrane of skin, there lay hidden another eye, useless indeed and in a primitive state, but still an eye. This eye, it was found, formed the fore-end of the pineal gland. This right researching

. . . "like a vein of ore
The further traced enriched them still the more."

The central eye of the Tuatara was not a third eye in process of development, but the first and single eye in process of being discarded by gradual degeneration continued through many generations. Professor Parker has observed that in the Tuatara the nerve of the pineal eye degenerates before the animal reaches maturity, so that the organ would appear—though evidently from its structure an organ of sight—to have now entirely or nearly lost its function. Not a gain, then, of a third eye the Tuatara was making, but the loss of the first eye. The first eye, at one time his only eye, was in process of ages going, but with the vast gain, by way of substitution, of the laterally placed eyes—in other words, the development of a pair of eyes for one central eye. The one eye becoming less effective as the pair of eyes became more effective, then useless, and lastly sunk back into the head and hidden by a covering of skin.

When the Maori came they found great numbers of the Tuatara on both islands, but from the newcomers and their dogs it received severe treatment, and later the pigs worked sad havoc amongst these defenceless creatures. It has disappeared from the mainland and is now only found on a few islets off the coast. It is now strictly preserved by the Government. The holes in which it

BUTTERFLIES AND DRAGON-FLIES

lives are usually formed in soft sand or shingle. It feeds on insects, but when in captivity it displays a great liking for fresh meat. It is said to have, like all lizards, a great love of music.

Dr. Dendy states that the earlier stages of development resemble those of the tortoise ; it is only later that its lizard-like character appears. In no other country on the face of the globe can this extremely interesting animal be found.

There is a little animal found in New Zealand which also plays an important part in the story of evolution, namely, the *Peripatus*, which is something like a caterpillar. It is about three inches long and lives in damp spots under the back of dead timber or under wet stones. Hitherto only nine species of the genus *Peripatus* have been found in widely separated parts of the world, but the genus differs so markedly in certain important features of its organization from all the rest of the "Arthropods" that it has been assigned a class all to itself in that great division and the class is named the *Onychophora*. A drawing of the Cape species of *Peripatus* is given in Parker and Haswell's *Text-book of Zoology*, 1897, at page 560, but so important is the genus in the science of zoology that an exhaustive monograph has now been written upon it by the distinguished French biologist, M. E. L. Bouvier, in his volume published in Paris in 1907.

Of insects indigenous to New Zealand there are but few varieties. Butterflies are but poorly represented and none are of glorious colouring. The dragon-flies cannot vie with those of the old world in size or beauty. Moths are numerous, but there are few varieties.

The Cockchafer (*Melolontha Vulgaris*), a beetle of the family *Lamiellicornes*, proves itself most destructive to vegetation, both as a grub and when matured. The grub will destroy whole fields of grass. Cockchafers deposit

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

their eggs to a depth of four inches thus making it very difficult to destroy the grub. Rooks and other imported birds have aided in their destruction.

Of Spiders there are none of any great size. The "Katipo" is a small black spider with a blood-red mark on its head and back. Its sting is very poisonous. It is to be found in decayed logs and dry seaweed on the sea-coast.

The Mason Bee, chiefly found in the North Island, is a very annoying insect as it elects to make its nest in keyholes, or walls, and in the folds of a mackintosh coat, or wherever it can find a suitable place.

The Weta is a large white grub about two inches in length, which bores tunnels through trees, perforating them in all directions. This grub is much valued by the Maori for food; they make a case of clay in which they bake it.

Mosquitos in bush country and in swampy land swarm by millions and are most venomous, but apparently the malaria-bearing species is absent.

Flies, especially in the country districts, are extremely objectionable as well on account of their number and their habits. Both the Blue-bottle and the Brown-bottle fly are most destructive to woollen materials, depositing their innumerable eggs on the rough surface which is thus permanently injured.

Of imported insects the Honey-bee and the Bumble-bee have been the most satisfactory. The latter has fertilized the red clover and created a new industry thereby.

Other insects which have been accidentally imported, such as Scale-blight and Codlin-moths, have worked extensive havoc in fruit orchards.

Snails were unknown until about twenty-five years ago, when, unfortunately, they were brought to the colony in the earth surrounding pot plants. They are now a regular pest.

MARVELS OF MIGRATION

Of the Caterpillars which were imported the small black and red furry variety is the most destructive. They will destroy whole fields of corn by nipping off the ears.

The rivers of New Zealand, when the white man arrived, contained only eels, lamprey, cray-fish, and inangas, the last somewhat resembling whitebait. The Acclimatization Societies have changed all this, and now the rivers and lakes are alive with varieties of trout, introduced from all parts of the world.

The Salmon has again and again been put into rivers seemingly most suitable for their development, but never was a full-grown one caught before the year 1908.

Of indigenous birds there are thirty-eight species in the dominion, as far as is at present known. It is remarkable that many of the species show great weakness of flight as in the case of the fern bird, the crow, the thrush, the tui and the huia, while others cannot fly at all. Of the latter the most noteworthy are the kiwi, the woodhen, the kakapo, and the flightless duck which is found only on the Auckland Islands.

That there should be any migratory birds in the dominion is much to be wondered at. It cannot be in search of food, for of this there is abundance in the land they are leaving.

The Long-tailed Cuckoo pays its annual visit to New Zealand from New Guinea, a distance of over 2,000 miles, with but few resting places *en route*.

Year after year, century after century, the Godwit (*Limosa Novæ-Zelandiæ*; Maori name, "Kuaka") wings its flight to and from Siberia. Towards the end of March these birds assemble in hundreds of thousands at the North Cape to arrange for their departure. These flights afford a perfect study of the power of organization possessed by birds. Collecting in parties of from 700 to 1,000 they rise from the beach in long lines and with little

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

or no clamour form into semicircles and mount high into the air. Sometimes the start has evidently not been conducted to the general satisfaction. They, in that case, descend to the beach, re-arrange themselves, and without scarcely a cry once more start on their long journey. Every year, at exactly the same date, they collect in the same spot. During their flights those forming the main body fly in silence, but should there be any stragglers they raise shrill and plaintive cries which are, apparently, unheeded by the main body. They take their departure in companies of from 700 to 1,000, these companies keeping a suitable distance from each other. They return to New Zealand in quite small parties and their advent is almost unobservable. It is not till Christmas time that they are to be seen in numbers at their old quarters. Some of these birds remain the whole year in New Zealand, becoming very tame during the winter. This being the case it is strange that neither the Maori nor settlers have ever seen their nests. The natives catch large numbers of them in snares made by attaching to Manuka poles a network made with strips of flax. They are much valued as food by the Maori, and are cooked like the English woodcock, the stomach being regarded as a tit-bit.

There are birds which originally were migratory and have now made New Zealand their permanent home, and only move from one island or one part of the country to another. Amongst these the Hawks and the White Heron should be mentioned.

There are two Hawks indigenous to New Zealand. One of these, the Quail Hawk (*Nesierax Novaæ Zealandiæ* ; Maori name "Ka-rewa-rewa"), is a true falcon and is a large powerful bird. The other, the Bush Hawk (*Nesierax Australis* ; Maori name, "Ka-rewa-rewa"), is smaller and quicker on the wing. Both are singularly bold and savage birds.



A RAW SUGAR STORE (CHELSEA, AUCKLAND)

A PLAGUE OF BIRDS

The White Heron (*Herodias Timoriensis*; Maori name, "Kotuku"). Owing to wanton destruction this bird is almost extinct. By its extermination the dominion has lost one of its most beautiful and statuesque-like birds, for a white heron watching for its prey was a sight that no lover of bird life could ever forget. For hours it would stand motionless, its snow-white body standing out in bold relief against the dark background of reeds and rushes. When its prey appears it does not move its body the least bit, but stretches its neck, and, with graceful lightning-like darts catches its fish and instantly returns to its motionless position.

The Kaka (*Nestor Meridionalis*) is a very remarkable parrot. Its general colouring is olive brown, top of the head grey, abdomen and over the tail a purplish red; at the back of the neck it has a thin ring of yellowish red. In its habits it is gregarious. When Kakas mate they show a great affection for each other being seldom seen apart. They prove themselves most devoted parents. Kakas are honey-loving birds. Insects also form a large part of their diet. It is said of Kakas that those who live near homesteads soon acquire a liking for fresh meat. Occasions have been known when these birds have for some unaccountable reason migrated in flocks, as occurred when they invaded Otago in 1856. Their numbers then were such that great consternation arose among the settlers as to what destruction might be caused if such inroads were repeated. That there was reason for these fears may be gathered from the fact that every available spot over a large area was covered by the invaders. On the Tokomairiro Plains of Otago the birds were so closely packed that they fought for perch room on the posts and rails of the fences. The same plague on a smaller scale has happened with regard to the green Parrakeet in Canterbury.

Of the Parrakeets (*Psittacidae*) there are six species to

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

be found on the mainland. One species is found only on the wind-swept southern outlying islands of the dominion. These desolate islands are the last place where a Parrakeet could reasonably be expected to live. They burrow in the roots of the tussock grass, making tunnel-like dwellings, where they live in pairs.

The Kakapo (*Stringops Habroptilus*) is a ground parrot of large size, a bird which New Zealand claims as her exclusive possession. It has many startling characteristics. It is described as repaying kindness with gratitude, and showing the affection and fidelity of the dog. It is as playful as a kitten, and will romp and enter into a game with much interest and intelligence. It has very decided ways of showing its pleasure. It will plume itself, nestle against the object that pleases it, utter a strange noise like a grunt of satisfaction, and wind up with a screech of joy. It has little or no power of flight. It is a "night bird," spending the day in its burrows. It is a very large eater, as is necessary on account of much of its food being by no means nutritious, mosses, lichens, and the like. Nevertheless at certain seasons it is very fat, and is said to have an excellent flavour. Its plumage, which is remarkably fluffy, is of a pale green colour delicately pencilled with light brown, resembling that of the clumps of moss, which cover the arid mountain regions in which it makes its home. It has a powerful beak, on either side of which are black hairy feathers standing out straight and giving it quite a fierce appearance.

The Kea (*Nestor Notabilis*). This parrot is essentially a mountain species breeding in inaccessible ledges on the rugged slopes of the Southern Alps. Its natural food is grubs, insects, and the seeds of Alpine plants. In severe weather, when its food becomes scarce in the high altitudes, it descends to the plains. It hops rather than walks. It is semi-nocturnal and delights in moonlight nights when numbers may be seen busily searching for grubs. It has

THE SHEEP-KILLING BIRD

four distinct cries, mewing like a cat, uttering a shrill whistle, making a clucking sound, and imitating a person suppressing a loud scream. In its disposition it is sociable and inquisitive and resents most violently any attempt to keep it caged. It will enter a camp, take up everything, examine it closely, and often carry something away with it. It is about the size of a rook. Its plumage is dull green, each feather being edged with black. Over the tail and beneath the wings it is red. The lower feathers of the wings are blue, barred with yellow. The tail is green with bars of black near the tip.

This bird has an evil reputation for killing sheep and a price is placed on its head. In Otago the County Councils offer 2s. 6d. per bird, and the Government adds a subsidy of 6d. a head. It is recorded by the Lands Department that on a station at Lake Wanaka 200 sheep were killed in one night.

In his book on *New Zealand Birds*, Sir Walter Buller describes how puzzled sheep-owners and shepherds were at what they thought a new disease amongst the sheep.

"The first appearance of this supposed disease is a patch of raw flesh on the loins of the sheep about the size of a man's hand. From this wound matter continually runs down the side, taking the wool completely off the part it touches, and in many cases death is the result. At last one of the shepherds noticed a mountain parrot attacking a sheep and picking the sore, and the animal seemed unable to rid itself of the bird. The parrots were watched when the sheep were being mustered in high ground. They were observed to surround a sheep which was freshly bleeding from a small wound in the loin. The birds come in flocks and attack a sheep at random, each alighting on the animal's back in turns and tearing the wool out, and making the sheep bleed, till the animal runs away from the rest of the flock. The birds then pursue their victim, attacking it and forcing it to run about till it becomes stupid."

It is suggested that the Kea developed this carnivorous habit by feeding at homesteads on sheep's heads and offal, and plucking at the sheepskins hung out to dry. There is another suggestion offered, namely, that the bird

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

tears to pieces in search of grubs a plant called *Raoulia Mammillaris*. This plant by its shape and woolly leaves so greatly resembles a sheep that it has been named the Vegetable Sheep.

The Bell Bird (*Anthornis Melanura* ; Maori name, "Makomako ") is the bird whose sweet note Captain Cook more than 100 years ago described as having been heard a quarter of a mile from the shore when his ship was anchored in Queen Charlotte's Sound. He may well have been charmed with this songster's bell-like note, which in sweetness and depth of tone surpasses the English nightingale. At Queenstown on Lake Wakatipu not many years ago the sweet notes of these birds might have been heard at the first gleam of dawn in such a volume that it seemed as if hundreds of them were calling to one another. When the sun rose all became still.

Whether the Takahe (*Notornis Hochstetteri*) was to be found alive was, for many years, a subject of much speculation.

When Mr. W. Mantell in 1847 discovered its bones in volcanic ashes they were looked upon as the skeleton of an extinct bird, and it was not until 1849 that a living specimen was discovered by sealers visiting Duck Cove, Resolution Island. Thirty years passed and no more was heard of the Takahe till one was killed by some men on the Te Anau Downs. Its skin and skeleton can be seen in the Dresden Museum. Another bird was caught at Lake Te Anau in 1898. Each of these birds showed great pluck, fighting fiercely before capture. It is about the size of a turkey and of a very powerful build. It has a back of olive green shot with black. The wings are blackish blue. Its head, neck, and the lower surface of its body are dark purplish blue, the under tail coverts are white.

The Wood-pigeon (*Hemiphaga Nova-Zelandiæ* ; Maori

A SWEET SONGSTER

name, "Kuku") is one of the most beautiful birds in the dominion. Its head, neck, and back are of a bright shining coppery purple, its breast of coppery green, and its tail of glossy black form a striking contrast to the pure white of its abdomen and the bright pink of its legs and feet. It lives on berries, and when these are in abundance it is in its prime. The Maori have a way of preserving it thus : They make an ingenious sort of basket out of the bark of the "Rimu." In it they pack the pigeons closely together, and pour melted fat over them to the depth of an inch.

The Grey Warbler (*Pseudogerygone Igata* ; Maori name, "Riro-Riro") is found in both islands. In the Chatham Islands a larger species is to be found. It is a cheerful, industrious little bird and is never still for a moment. It has a sweet merry note, and when singing raises its white-tipped tail into a fan-like shape. It builds its nest in shrubs. The nest is suspended from a branch by its top, and is kept in place by stays attached to twigs. The hole to the nest is on the side, and is protected with a porch-like structure. It is strange that the cuckoo should choose as a nest in which to deposit its eggs one to which entrance can only be gained with difficulty. The size of the hole and its position seem to render it impossible for so large a bird as the cuckoo to lay its egg directly in the nest. It has, however, been suggested by way of explanation that the egg is laid on the ground, and carried by the cuckoo and lowered into the nest.

Like the Tuatara the Kiwi belongs to a tribe, *Apteryx*, whose ancient history is wrapped in complete mystery. There are five members of this family. Their plumage is brown flaked with black, the only variation being in the shade. The feathers resemble fur, and a Maori mat made from the feathers of the Brown Kiwi is not unlike Russian Sable. The smaller of the species is about the size of a barn-door fowl, and the larger the size of a

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

turkey. The late Dr. Parker of Dunedin considered the Kiwi nearly allied to the Moa though differing from it in some important respects. It is a strikingly nocturnal bird, burying itself in the dense bush during the day-time when it remains in a deep sleep. The shape of this remarkable bird is that of an elongated cone gradually tapering forwards. Its head is small with a long curved bill ; it has no tail, and its wings appear only as crooked appendages terminating in a curved horny claw. Its legs and feet are heavy, giving it a most ungraceful appearance. It is stated by the Maori that the bird buries its egg, that it then burrows underneath it, and exposes about one-third of its lower end ; under this it sits and thus hatches the egg. The male bird is much smaller than the female. The egg is white and out of all proportion to the size of the bird, being almost as large as the male bird. Notwithstanding all efforts to preserve this bird it is fast disappearing.

Of the genus *Ocydromus*, or Wood Hen (Maori name, "Weka "), there are five species. They are found only in New Zealand. Some are peculiar to the South Island and some to the North. The plumage resembles hair rather than feathers. The Weka has not the power of flight but it can run at a great pace and is very clever at avoiding capture. It is a born thief and will carry away almost anything, especially if it is bright and glittering. The homestead dust-heap is a source of endless joy to a Weka, if such a thing as a sardine-tin is to be found. Two of these birds may often be seen fighting for the same object, and when that is the case it is often a fight to the death. Although occasionally it kills or steals a chicken, it is nevertheless a good friend to the settler, as it destroys a grub which attacks the roots of English grasses. It has a weird cry, and when several Wekas are within calling distance they may be heard answering each other.

“ MORE PORK ”

There are two Owls, the Laughing Owl (*Sceloglaux Albigacies* ; Maori name, “Whekau”) and the More-pork (*Ninox-Novæ-Zelandiæ* ; Maori name, “Ruru”). The former is becoming very rare owing to its food supply having become inadequate through the destruction of the native bush. Its habits are nocturnal, and it lives in the bleakest and most deserted country it can find.

The other owl is one of the best-known bush birds, on account of its extraordinary cry, which absolutely resembles the words, “More Pork.” It is much smaller than the Laughing Owl and is a pretty little bird with soft fluffy brown plumage. It may be found in the dense bush in many parts of the country where it hides itself in the darkest spots. It is sad to see the state of confusion into which this friendly little bird gets when by chance it is driven into daylight.

There are two species of Crow (Maori name, “Kokako”). Each species is identified with one particular island. The Crow is a beautiful bird with a fine erect carriage. The plumage is of a dark blue grey, and it has a largely developed wattle of a bright orange colour. It has a musical note which can be heard at a great distance. The male is said to have six distinct notes, and these he raises in sweet song to cheer his mate when she sits upon her nest. Crows were originally found all over the colony, but settlement has driven them back into the mountains.

The Stitch Bird (*Pogonornis Cincta* ; Maori name, “Hihi”) has quite disappeared from the mainland and has sought the peaceful shelter of Little Barrier Island, but even there it is rarely seen.

The Huia (*Heteralocha Acutirostris*) affords to the ornithologist a study of a wonderful natural peculiarity. This consists in a difference in the formation of the bill of the male and that of the female. In the case of the male the beak is straight ; in the female it is curved into a

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

full semicircle and is much stronger than the males. This difference in formation of the bills led many ornithologists to imagine that the male and female belonged to different species. Sir Walter Buller's theory that the difference in the bills enables the birds to perform different offices in searching for their food has now been generally accepted.

Huias are believed to be monogamous, the cock bird keeping from season to season with the same hen. Their greenish-black plumage resembles in shade and gloss that of the English Starling and they are about the size of that bird. The orange wattles, white-tipped feathers in the tail, and the ivory-coloured beak form a striking contrast to its greenish blue-black plumage. This bird has always been an object of interest to the Maori, as its tail feathers form part of the distinguishing head ornaments of the chiefs.

The Huia frequents a limited area in the North Island between Wellington and Hawke's Bay.

Without fear of contradiction the *Prosthemadera Nova-Zealandia* (Maori name, "Tui") may be paid the compliment of being considered the best known and best beloved of New Zealand's birds. There is something irresistibly attractive in its joyous activity, as it darts from one tall flax stick to another. With head bent downwards over the flowers it thrusts its beak far into the blossoms and drinks of the honey, which is its favourite food. It is a veritable acrobat, and it is quite a pretty sight to watch a party of these birds sporting in the open at the edge of the bush. It has a cheerful note, which it raises in great excitement when it is performing its aerial gymnastics. It has bright glossy feathers of a bluish or greenish black which glisten in the sunlight. On its wings are two patches of white feathers. It has round its neck and shoulders a collar of white half-curved feathers, which look as if they had been powdered over the general plumage

TWO GREAT PETS

in that part of the bird's body. Two tufts of pendant white curly feathers adorn the front of the neck. From these adornments, resembling as they do the bands worn by the parson in the good old days, it has received the name of the Parson Bird.

The Tui, during the breeding season, has very large ideas as to how much of the bush belongs to it, and will attack intruders who venture to approach when its mate is sitting.

In captivity these birds are subject to fits of a distressing kind ; they have convulsions, then become rigid and froth at the beak. Hot applications seem to relieve their sufferings. They are very tenacious of life. A bird which had been left for dead at night was found in the morning hopping about happily in the house. They talk readily and have a wonderful power of imitating their teacher's voice. The wife of the writer had a pair for eighteen months. They were seldom in their cage, but wandered about the house and garden, never showing any desire to stray. They learned to imitate their owner's voice, when calling the servants, to such perfection, that one morning the maids arose to their call to find that the Tui were earlier risers than their mistress.

The Swamp Hen (*Porphyrio Melanotos* ; Maori name, "Pukeko") is a beautiful bird. Its back, neck, and abdomen are blue-black, its breast of a lovely shade of indigo blue ; the under feathers of its very short tail are white. It has long legs of a deep red colour. Its beak is ivory white. It is described as occasionally feeding itself like a parrot by holding its food in its claws. It seldom appears in the open during the day, but hides itself in flax bushes and reeds. It feeds early in the morning and in the evening, its principal food being vegetable substances, but it also eats insects.

The Kingfisher (*Halcyon Vagans* ; Maori name, "Kotare") is not so bright in plumage as the English

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

species, but is more voracious, not contenting itself with fish diet, but devouring mice, bees, beetles, and young birds, and even chickens.

A most noisy but kindly bird is the Saddle Back (*Creadion Carunculatus*; Maori name, "Tieke"). Its constant chattering seems to betoken merriness of heart and cheerfulness of spirits. Its movements are peculiarly its own, as it starts off half-hopping, half-flying, making leaps from bough to bough, appearing and disappearing from view with lightning-like rapidity. It has little power of flight and is seldom seen out of the dense bush. In colour it is funereal, the whole bird being of a bluish-black tint, the strange saddle-like marking on its back being as dark as jet.

There are four species of the New Zealand Robin. It greatly resembles in its habits and movements the English Robin Redbreast but is somewhat smaller.

Two varieties have greenish-black breasts and abdomen, while the plumage of the others is jet black. The Robin is of a friendly disposition, and becomes so tame that in a bush camp it will hop about quite unconcernedly picking up crumbs. It is one of New Zealand's sweetest songsters, and has a very far-reaching note for so small a bird. It is an insect eater, and helps the colonists by destroying many of their pests.

The Brown Creeper (*Finschia Nova-Zelandiae*; Maori name, "Toitoti") has a reddish-brown head, back, and tail. At the side of its head there is a patch of dark grey, and the same colour is found on the nape of the neck. The breast is of a fawn colour. The tail feathers have a large spot of yellowish brown on them.

The Bush Canary (Maori name, "Mohua") has a harsh shrill note, which is in great contrast to the sweet notes of its caged cousin in the old country. Its head, breast, and abdomen are yellow, the back and tail being a brownish-yellow colour. It is an active little bird and

THE HANDSOME DUCK

may be seen running from one clump of moss to another in search of insects. It is found only in the South Island.

There are four species of Wren, all peculiar to the colony. The Green Wren is a dainty little person to be seen creeping over mosses and lichens in search of insects.

The Rock Wren inhabits the mountain ranges in the South Island. It feeds upon insects and has a lizard-like movement as it runs into holes in the rocks when alarmed. The Bush Wren (Maori name, "Tititipounamu") lives in the sub-Alpine forests of both islands. The Stephen Island Wren has become extinct having fallen a victim to the rat. It was said to be semi-nocturnal. The Maori in the early days called these birds Atuas, which being interpreted means "Birds of the Divinity."

Of the genus *Sphenæacus*, the Fern Bird (Maori name, "Matata"), there are two species peculiar to New Zealand and one in the Chatham Islands. It is among those birds that are becoming scarce, owing to their destruction by bush fires. It falls an easy victim to the flames, its indifferent powers of flight preventing it from escaping. It is a very shy bird and solitary in its habits. When seen running up the fern stems or the stalks of the flax or toi-toi it might be mistaken for the English field mouse so greatly does it resemble the latter in colour and movement.

Who could fail to admire the graceful little Fan-tail, genus *Rhipidura*, as with tail erect and drooping wings it alights on a bough to catch an insect, and then flutters off, tail erect, and threads its way among the leaves? It is the busiest of birds being constantly at work. Its sweet note may be heard before sunrise and after sunset.

The Paradise Duck (*Casarca Variegata*; Maori name, "Putangitangi") is a strikingly handsome bird. Black feathers cover the head and neck and breast of the male bird. Its back has black feathers pencilled transversely

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

with white. Its abdomen is red, pencilled with black. The upper parts of the wings are white. It is remarkable that the plumage of the female is more striking than that of the male, and that she has a white head and breast. These birds become very tame when unmolested and may be seen feeding on lawns close to homesteads. This bird is becoming rare on account of the easy prey that it becomes to some sportsmen.

There are also to be found the New Zealand grey Duck (*Anas superciliosa*); the Grey Teal (*Nettion Castaneum*); the Brown Duck (Maori name, "Patake"); the White-winged Duck (*Nyroca Australis*); the Black Teal (*Fuligula Novæ-Zelandiæ*), and the Blue Mountain Duck (Maori name, "Whio").

Of the genus *Hypotaenidia* there are five species: the Pectoral Rail (Maori name, "Mohopereru"); the Macquarie Island Rail, the Mangare Rail, the Auckland Islands Rail, and the Dieffenbach's Rail. The first-mentioned species is found on the mainland, the remainder on the outlying southern islands. They never rise on the wing unless in great danger, and even then they only fly short distances. They feed on sedges, and are said to swallow sand to help digestion.

The genus *Botaurus* has only one representative, *Botaurus Pacilloptilus* (the Bittern). This bird has become rare owing to the large areas of swamp lands having been drained. *Thinornis Novæ-Zelandiæ*, "The Sand-plover" (Maori name, "Kukuruatu"). This species is becoming very rare. The *Thinornis Rossi*, the Auckland Island Sand-plover, is found only on that island.

Of the genus *Gallinago* there are three species all found on the outlying islands. The Auckland Island Snipe (*Gallinago Aucklandica*) is a heavier and shorter legged bird than the one found in Europe. In these uninhabited islands the bird is very tame, having little or no fear of man. It is a slow flyer and usually remains on the wing

THE TAME SNIPE

only while it covers a short distance. In its methods of flight it preserves the zig-zag dashes of the snipe of the northern hemisphere. Its back is red-brown speckled with black, its breast and abdomen almost white, neck and breast thickly flaked with brown, and head strangely marked on either side of beak with a dark brown stripe from the nostrils under the eye to the back of the head and another in an oblique direction on each cheek.

The Snares Snipe (*Gallinago Huegeli*) greatly resembles the last, but its breast and abdomen are barred with blackish brown. They are found only on these rocky storm-swept islands.

The Chatham Island Snipe (*Gallinago Pusilla*). The back of this bird is red-brown spotted with black, abdomen fulvous, and breast white, closely spotted with brown. The head is marked in a similar manner to that of the Auckland Island Snipe having longitudinal brownish lines on the top.

The New Zealand Mutton Bird (*Puffinus Griseus*). These birds are occasionally to be found breeding on the southern part of the North Island. In the southern part of the South Island they are to be found in millions. There they have formed extensive rookeries. They possess when matured little or no beauty of form or colouring, their general tone being sooty brown. Their wing feathers have each a dark shaft. When quite young they are pretty fluffy little things resembling balls of grey swansdown. These birds are extremely interesting on account of their gregarious habits and strange flights. They leave their rookeries at stated periods and return to them with the greatest regularity, reappearing almost at the same hour and day year after year.

An example of the gregariousness of these birds will be exemplified by the following account given by Captain Waller of the "Westphalia." He reports that "on

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

one occasion while on a passage from New Zealand to Australia he steamed thirty miles through flights of Mutton Birds which extended for three or four miles on each side of his vessel. Occasionally they settled on the water to feed and then they covered the surface and looked like a reef of black rocks."

The Kermadec Mutton Bird (*Æstrelata Neglecta* ; Maori name, "Piakoia" in imitation of its cry). This bird pays yearly visits to the Kermadec Islands, there to breed. It arrives at the end of August or early in September. Its breeding grounds are to be found all over the islands, but it favours the hilltops. It does not burrow like most of its species, but lays its egg on the bare ground or in the roots of trees. It only lays one egg. It varies much in colour, but its general toning is brown and white. The young birds are much valued as food. They are killed just as they are losing their down and before the new feathers are formed. They are salted and smoked or pickled in brine. In one year in Denham Bay alone over 12,000 of these birds were preserved.

Of the genus *Phalacrocorax* (Cormorants ; New Zealand name, "Shags"), New Zealand has more species than any other country in the world, having no less than fifteen. Two of these are found nowhere else—the *Phalacrocorax Brevirostris* (the White-throated Shag) and the Pied Shag (Maori name, "Kawau"). On the east coast of North Island, near Matata, these birds form "shaggaries" of great extent and their habits of life are most interesting. Here their nests are crowded together on the branches of the Pohutukawa which overhang the cliffs. When the old birds are preparing or repairing their nests and the young birds are still in the neighbourhood of their nest, they often come to an untimely end by being thrown from the tree branches by the old birds, who fight most fiercely for the dry sticks, moss, and pieces of seaweed which are used for nest-making. Seaweed

THE PENGUIN ROOKERIES

seems to be much valued for the purpose of building, as the birds will go far in search of it and often dive a great depth into the sea to procure it. When the old birds are fighting the young ones are tumbled by dozens down the cliffs and become an easy prey to harriers who are always to be seen hovering over these shaggeries. The young shags are much valued by the Maori, who preserve them in fat or by salting them. These birds wander far from the coast and may be seen looking most forlorn perched on a shag in a river-bed. The Pied Shag varies from others of its species in the fact of its not being gregarious.

There are four species of Penguins peculiar to New Zealand: the Crested, Big Crested, Royal and the Yellow-eyed. The Crested Penguin, (Maori name, "Tawaki") breeds on the Snares and sometimes on the South Island. The remainder breed on the southern outlying islands, where they have large "rookeries."

Of the family *Diomedæidæ* (the Albatrosses) there are four species found on various islands:—

The Wandering Albatross (Maori name, "Toroa");

The Royal Albatross;

The Snowy Albatross;

The Sooty Albatross.

These species never consort when they live on the same island, their breeding grounds are far apart. Only one egg is laid. It is interesting to observe that the Albatross takes three years before its plumage becomes that of the adult, and that for one year the chick remains on the nest, being only visited by its parents at dawn every morning to be fed. At the end of the year the old birds return, and remove the young bird from the nest, which they prepare for the next occupant. The banished young bird remains with its parents during the breeding season, and seemingly annoys them greatly by pecking at their heads, even making the skin quite sore. It is not till the

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

young are eighteen months old that they go far out to sea, and then they accompany their parents.

It is much to be regretted that with the destruction of the bush so many of the most interesting birds should have disappeared from the mainland, and it has been owing to the forethought of the Government that these species have not, like the Moa, become totally extinct. The Government have set aside three sanctuaries, one on Little Barrier Island in the north, another on Resolution Island in the south, and the third on Kapiti Island on the south-west coast of the North Island. Experts are appointed to look after the welfare of the feathered tribes committed to their charge. These efforts have been crowned with great success, some of the rare species having even increased in numbers since the sanctuaries were established.

The efforts to introduce game birds into the colony have not in all cases been successful, the Partridge having quite died out.

The Pheasant, both English and Chinese, when first introduced promised to be a great success. Their numbers increased rapidly, unfortunately only to decrease as quickly, and it is feared they will share the fate of the Partridge.

The introduction of Quail has proved most successful. Of this bird three species can now be found in New Zealand. The Californian Mountain Quail, the Californian Quail, and the Australian Quail. Some idea of the way these birds have increased may be gathered from the following account. It is reported that in Pelorus Sound in August, 1908, settlers suffered great loss to their crops by the voracious appetites of the Californian Quail, which arrived in thousands sweeping everything before them.

The following imported game birds are to be found in various parts of the dominion :—

THE BIRDS' SOCIAL BARRIER

English and Chinese Pheasants.

French Partridges.

Californian Quail.

Californian Mountain Quail.

Australian Quail.

English Mallard.

Australian Plovers.

English Green Plovers (Peewits).

Pintail Quail.

Ostrich farming has been successfully carried on in the Auckland district, and the feathers from these birds are exceptionally fine.

Emus are to be seen on private properties in various parts of the dominion, and seem to thrive.

Some of the smaller introduced birds have found in the bush a place of escape from the destroying hand of man, where they have been able to increase and multiply without fear of molestation. This has been carried to a dangerous extreme in the case of the house-sparrow, which has become such a pest that many methods have of necessity been adopted to keep their numbers within bounds. From Mr. T. W. Kirk's observations, the sparrow in its new home indulges in five broods a year.

The introduction of English small birds has doubtless done much to keep in check insect pests. The study of their habits in their new surroundings is extremely interesting to the observer. They never, for instance, consort with the native birds. There is a "social barrier," as it were, set up which time has failed to break down. One may see tuis, warblers, bell-birds, and others belonging to New Zealand amicably feeding and bathing together on one side of a lake, while the imported English birds, starlings, thrushes, blackbirds, and the like, stay by themselves in another place.

There is an interesting question being constantly suggested by the failure of certain species to establish

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

themselves in the dominion, while others of similar habits as regards feeding, etc., succeed admirably.

Again, we would like to have an explanation why some of the imported birds, such as the goldfinch and the black-bird, have found their way unassisted across the hundreds of miles of ocean separating New Zealand from the Auckland Islands, whereas the starling and scores of others have never gone beyond the shores of the dominion.

Animal life in New Zealand owes much both to the Government and the various Acclimatization Societies. The former for their efforts already alluded to in connection with bird sanctuaries, and the latter for their continuous and valuable assistance in increasing the number of all kinds of animals, birds, and fishes. The dominion would have had much fewer attractions for the tourist and the naturalist but for these excellent arrangements.

PART III

CHAPTER I

DEVELOPMENT, 1853-1870

FIRST General Assembly—Appointment of Sir T. G. Browne as Governor—Dissatisfaction of the Maori—Difficulties of government—Formation of a native department—The Maori determine to have a king—War—Governor's proclamation—Proclamation withdrawn—Handing over to New Zealand Government the conduct of native affairs—Serious condition of affairs—Massacre at Poverty Bay—General progress of the colony—Earthquake at Wellington.

WHEN Sir George Grey left the colony in December, 1853, the personal rule of governors came to an end. Representative institutions had been granted and responsible government was now to commence. Pending the appointment of a successor to Sir George Grey, the government was administered by Colonel Wynyard, the senior military officer in New Zealand.

In 1854 the first General Assembly met. No good whatever arose, or could arise from such a meeting. It had not power to do anything, apparently, but pass addresses to the Governor. The Executive Council, which had existed in the later days of personal rule, was still there, and very naturally the members of it did not wish to find themselves in the position of being suddenly ejected from office without some compensation. The Administrator could not give it to them. A compromise was attempted by the latter appointing three members of the General Assembly to the Executive, and by the old Executive promising to resign when pensions were

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

allotted to them. Like many other attempts at compromise, in which the details have not definitely been laid down in writing, this came to nothing.

The new members of the Executive said that the Administrator had not kept his promise as he had not called upon the old members to resign. He replied that they had not passed the Pensions Bill. Two Ministers were appointed, without any good arising, and practically the whole system of responsible government remained in abeyance.

In the meantime, Sir Thomas Gore Browne was appointed Governor and arrived in September, 1855. He took the proper measures for the establishment of responsible government and in November, 1855, the first members of the House of Representatives were elected. In May of the following year the first Ministry was appointed, and within a month of their taking office no less than three changes of Ministry took place.

The difficulties with which both the Governor and the Parliament were faced were by no means small ones. The colonists looked forward with pleasure to the management of the affairs of the country being entirely left in the hands of representatives elected by themselves. Many of them no doubt thought that the time had arrived when all their troubles and all the things they had complained of would find remedies. Hopes were of course entertained by some that the land question and the Maori question would now soon be solved.

The Maori did not like the change, as far as they were able to understand it. They found that instead of being able to deal only with one person, and he the Governor and practical ruler of the country, they would now have to bring all their grievances before a number. They found that in the great change of system of government which had been hailed with joy by the white race, they had practically no share. The native land question and all

TROUBLES OF A GOVERNOR

the troubles connected with its purchase, including that of its lawful ownership by the various tribes, were matters that had to be dealt with. The views also of the colonists, on matters connected with the treatment of the natives and their lands, differed considerably.

The provincial governments, which had been brought into existence prior to the first parliament, had been for some time working out the problem of how best to manage their own affairs and provide revenue for their own requirements. That they always tried to get as much power as possible into their hands was only natural. Each province represented, to those who lived in it, a little kingdom which it was their duty to develop as much as possible.

One of the first provincial requests was that they should have the control of the Crown Lands situated in the respective provinces, and retain the revenue obtained from their sale. This was granted. The provinces in the North Island, where the Maori possessed most of the land and would not sell it, could get but little revenue, and were always in financial trouble; while those in the south, which had plenty of crown land for sale and no native difficulty, were always in the happy position of having an abundance of money in their treasuries.

Above all things in importance stood that of the native policy to be pursued. The Governor having received authority from the Imperial Government to retain in his own lands all matters affecting the Maori, especially the land question, proceeded to act in the way that appeared to him best calculated to give effect to imperial promises in reference to the natives, as well as dealing fairly with the colonists.

The Parliament had the power of the purse, while the Governor had the Executive control.

It was perfectly obvious that the position thus established in regard to native affairs alone, was one which

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

was certain to cause considerable anxiety as to the future.

It can easily be imagined that with even the difficulties already alluded to, the task before both Governor and Parliament was no easy one. Some of them provided cause for disagreements, which, unfortunately, resulted in wars between natives and colonists, leading to much bloodshed and greatly retarding the progress of the colony.

As a starting point for dealing with the native question, a Native Department was formed which had as its head a Native Secretary. The person who was appointed to the position was Mr., afterwards Sir, Donald McLean, who was selected on account of his knowledge of the language, character, and customs of the natives. Sir Donald was also the Commissioner of Land Purchase, and in that position acted for the Government in obtaining lands that the natives were desirous to sell. The natives who had always been suspicious that the principal aim of the Government was to get their land from them, looked upon this dual appointment with disfavour. It was, however, impossible to make provision for every doubt that might arise in the minds of the Maori as to the good faith of the Government in its dealings with them.

A relaxation of a law made by Sir George Grey, which prohibited the sale of firearms to the Maori, resulted in disaster to the colonists in the future. The Government pursued a policy of conciliation towards the natives with the hope that it would tend to civilizing them and making them contented. They gave them schools, but not being able to provide sufficient money to maintain them, they dwindled away. They made many presents to them of all sorts of things suitable for the furtherance of agricultural, milling, house-building, and other industries. They provided them with instructors, and they passed laws with a view to controlling native districts in harmony

THE KING-MAKER

with the desires of the Maori themselves. For a time the Maori took great interest in the various industries, and actually went so far as to found technical schools in which trades were taught by white employers.

Notwithstanding the benefits that they were receiving, the Maori were discontented and made up their minds that by the worry of perpetual demands they could get more. The white people at the same time felt that they were being entirely neglected, and that their position amongst the natives was far from secure. The Maori thought, and with some reason, that they themselves and their lands would be overwhelmed by the multitude of white people coming to their shores, and they also saw that the divisions between themselves prevented their showing a united front towards those whom they looked upon as their common foe.

They determined, therefore, to have a king of their own. Taking advantage of the Bible training that they had received, they used certain passages of Scripture in support of their view that they should make one. Wiremu Tamihana, the "King-maker," as he was called, quoted words from a verse in the eighth chapter of I Samuel : "Make us a king to judge us," evidently having in his mind the words which followed, namely, "like all the nations." The original intention of the peaceful "King-maker" to have two nations in the country, each owning allegiance to its own sovereign, although it might have seemed feasible to him, was, of course, out of the question. There could not be "two kings in Brentford."

The native movement in king-making might have had no evil effects, and if left alone, and if all concerned had been possessed of peaceful intentions, would probably have died a natural death. This, however, was not the case. There were some advocates of it who would have liked to sweep the pakeha or foreigner into the sea, and thought that they might now be able to do so.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

An incident shortly occurred which was the beginning of a war that lasted for some years. This it could not possibly have done had it not been for the existence of the king movement which practically enforced the participation in the contest of tribes remote from the seat of trouble, and not concerned in the matter in dispute. A chief named Wiremu Kingi, who had obtained an overpowering influence in the district of Taranaki, where the dispute occurred, precipitated war. In 1859 a Maori, named Te-Teira, offered to the Governor to sell him his land at Waitara to the northward of Taranaki. Wiremu Kingi, who based his right to have something to say on the matter on the ground that he had been asked by Te-Teira to settle on part of the land, opposed the sale and said he would not allow it to take place. There were, of course, white sympathisers with the natives, among whom were the Bishop of New Zealand and the Chief Justice, who supported Wiremu Kingi in the matter. The Governor, acting on the advice of the Government officials who had shown to him that Te-Teira was completely within his rights in selling the land, treated Wiremu Kingi as an interfering mischief-maker. A survey of the land was ordered, but the surveyors, at the instigation of Wiremu Kingi, were turned off. This led to instructions being given to occupy the land with troops. Wiremu Kingi's pah was attacked, and a war commenced in 1860 which soon brought into the field all the tribes who had ranged themselves under the flag of the Maori king.

The war was the beginning of a series of severe struggles with the natives in various parts of the North Island which only ended in 1870.

The state into which the Taranaki settlement was plunged can easily be imagined. Farms were deserted, women and children were conveyed to places of safety, even as far as Nelson in the South Island, and the capital town was practically turned into an armed camp. About

SUBMISSION OR WAR

3,000 imperial troops, mostly drawn from Australia, were there, ready for any military movement that might be necessary. These were supplemented by a local militia enrolled from among the settlers in the district. The time that had elapsed since the war at Kororareka, and various minor outbreaks of hostility on the part of the Maori that took place up to the year 1848, had, to a large extent, lulled the colonists into a state of security, and the statement that "the best way to secure peace is to be ready for war," was treated as one with which they had no concern.

The Imperial Government approved of the action taken in New Zealand with regard to native affairs. This, combined with the Governor's view, that the war in Taranaki had been forced by the Maori, was undoubtedly the cause of his determining to bring the matter to a definite conclusion. He accordingly issued a proclamation in which he demanded :—

(1) From all :—Submission without reserve to the Queen's sovereignty and the authority of the law ;

(2) From those who are in possession of plunder :—Restitution of that plunder ;

(3) From those who have destroyed or made away with property :—Compensation for the losses sustained.

The Maori, of course, advanced all sorts of arguments to prove that they were not the aggressors in the late war and that their reason for setting up a king was in the interests of peace.

The Governor naturally saw that there was not going to be any submission on the part of the Maori, and that war was the only way by which he could compel them to obey the proclamation.

Before any action could be taken, Sir Thomas Gore Browne's term of office expired, and he left the colony in 1861. Sir George Grey, who had left New Zealand in 1853, was again appointed as Governor.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The proclamation issued by Sir Thomas Gore Browne was withdrawn, and it was hoped that a condition of peace would ensue. Notwithstanding, however, the efforts of the Governor and of the peace-loving premier, Sir William Fox, although a general war was averted, occasional acts of hostility were committed by the Maori. These, together with the pronounced warlike intentions of the king party, led to a war with Waikato, which was continued in that and adjacent parts of the country until 1864, when there was a lull.

On the 26th February, 1863, an important event occurred, when Sir George Grey, with the sanction of the Imperial Government, handed over to the New Zealand Government the conduct of native affairs. This involved the payment by the colonists of some of the heavy military expenditure which was to follow.

An idea may be formed of the extent to which military forces became necessary, when it is stated that the number of regular troops in New Zealand increased between June, 1863, and August, 1865, from 5,245 to 10,047. The naval authorities were also called upon to provide a considerable contingent. The troops raised by the colony amounted to about 10,200 in addition. The whole of the forces were under the command of General Sir Duncan Cameron, who carried out the campaign on a system which did not commend itself to either the Governor or the colonists. Probably it was scientific, but it was slow and did not suit the needs of the bush warfare in which the troops were engaged, and in the art of which the Maori were past-masters.

It should be stated that throughout the wars which took place between the Maori and the Europeans the assistance rendered by the tribes friendly to the latter was always ungrudgingly given, and was of enormous value. Majors Kepa (Kemp) and Ropata Wahawaha may be particularly mentioned as chiefs who did great

A SAD DISASTER

service for the Queen, who presented them with swords of honour for their loyalty and distinguished conduct.

During the Waikato war, which was conducted with extreme caution, to say the least of it, victory rested with the Europeans on every occasion of importance, with the exception of the assault on the Gate Pah, near Tauranga, on the Bay of Plenty. The Pah, which is the Maori name for a stockade, was placed in a position well selected by the Maori on account of its natural advantages. It consisted of a strongly palisaded redoubt flanked on either side by a swamp, between which and the redoubt were strongly entrenched rifle-pits. This was invested by a British force consisting of about 1,700 soldiers, sailors, and marines. The artillery power available consisted of five rifled breech-loading Armstrong guns (one of them of large calibre), two 24-pounder howitzers, and fourteen mortars. After a large amount of artillery fire, a practicable breach was made in the works and the assault took place. The assaulting column consisted of 150 seamen and marines, and the same number from the 43rd Regiment.

After forcing an entrance into the pah the assailants met with a fierce resistance, during which many of the officers were killed, including almost all the leaders. Then one of those unaccountable panics took place which occasionally demoralize even veterans, and the attack was converted into a repulse. The attack was not renewed on account of the night coming on. A fresh assault was contemplated on the morrow, but during the night the enemy escaped. The British losses were put down at 111 killed and wounded. The native losses were not ascertainable, but must have been severe.

Previous to this action there had been a severe engagement at Rangiriri on the Waikato, where the natives were defeated with considerable loss. There were several others in which we were successful, including one at

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Ngaruawahia, when the British flag was hoisted on the Maori king's flagstaff.

After the battle of Te Ranga on June 21st, 1864, there was a lull for a time in the fighting. In the end of 1864, Sir George Grey confiscated the lands of the insurgent natives in the Waikato under the power given to him to that end by an Act passed in December, 1863.

A serious addition to the difficulties that had to be contended with arose from the adoption by a certain portion of the Maori of what was called the Hau-Hau religion. This seems, unfortunately, to have had its origin in a wrong conception of the teaching they received from the missionaries. The whole thing was repulsive and horrible to an extreme, and brought out the most savage instincts of a most savage people. Under the guise of this so-called religion, the Hau, Haus perpetrated the most abominable cruelties and crimes.

There had been some little fighting in the Taranaki and Wanganui districts during the time the Waikato war lasted which was confined to attacks on military outposts. The white settlers had, however, been confined to the small towns by the gangs of marauders, and the roads between the two districts were impassable. Sir Duncan Cameron came down to Wanganui with 6,000 troops to end this state of affairs. His timidity in conducting this campaign earned for him the nickname by the Maori of the "Lame Seagull."

Grave disputes had arisen between the Governor and the General and these did not fail to contribute to the difficulty of the position. On one occasion the General neglected to attack a pah called Wereroa, on the ground that his force was insufficient for the purpose. The Governor got together a force of some 300 friendly natives and 164 colonial troops, and with the promise of the moral support of 200 regulars, undertook and accomplished



HAMILTON (WAIKATO DISTRICT)

PRISONERS ESCAPE

the task of taking the pah. This occupied only two days.

During this period the question of the withdrawal of the imperial troops was engaging the attention of Parliament, and Sir Frederick Weld, the Premier, strongly urged that it should be done. It was true that the war was not at an end, and that the task to be entered on by the colony after the withdrawal was a serious one. On the other hand, the employment of imperial troops was a heavy drain on the finances of the colony. The Imperial Government were tired of the mention even of the word New Zealand and jumped at the chance of getting the troops out of the country. This was slowly carried out and eventually completed.

From the time that the imperial troops ceased to take an active part in military operations, the colonial forces, with the invaluable aid of the native allies, had many severe engagements with the insurgent Maori, in which they were generally successful.

One of the worst incidents that took place and one that enraged the colonists almost beyond measure was the massacre of thirty-two Europeans at Poverty Bay, by a band of natives under the leadership of a Hau-Hau ruffian, named Te Kooti. The Government had sent a considerable number of prisoners, taken in one of the campaigns, to the Chatham Islands. Amongst these was Te Kooti. He planned the escape of himself and his fellow-prisoners in a very clever way, and succeeded in the project.

A schooner called "The Rifleman" arrived at the Chatham Islands with stores for the guard stationed there, as well as for the prisoners. The guard having been reduced in numbers were insufficient for their duty. They were overpowered, the schooner was seized, and the prisoners made their way in safety to Poverty Bay. Unsuccessful attempts were made to arrest them, and,

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

finally, Te Kooti, after inciting his followers to take vengeance on the Europeans, swooped down on Poverty Bay and committed the atrocious massacre already alluded to.

Steps were immediately taken to ensure his capture, if possible. His force was pursued from place to place and many fights ensued during which numbers of his band were made prisoners. Although wounded, he managed to escape from all his pursuers and finally took refuge in the king country, where he was left alone. The valour and loyalty of our native allies was a prominent feature in the long-sustained pursuit of Te Kooti and the many engagements that took place during that time.

Another savage, named Titokowaru, was chased by Colonel, afterwards Sir George, Whitmore from the Wanganui district into the fastnesses of the interior and, like Te Kooti, left alone.

The dreams of independence which the Maori treasured, as well as their hopes of being lords over the Europeans, were completely ended by the assertion of the white power in the wars which ended in 1870.

It would be impossible to mention all the noted colonists who played the principal parts in this theatre of war. Suffice it to say, that Sir George Whitmore and Colonel McDonell, not to speak of many other brave and capable leaders, particularly distinguished themselves in the later campaigns. Sir Harry Atkinson, afterwards for many years Premier, proved himself to be a distinguished, plucky, and capable soldier in the earlier days in Taranaki.

The valour, capability, and endurance of the colonial forces was fully proved during their many campaigns and hard fights. They were the men who, fully understanding the country and the natives, were able to show themselves to be masters in the art of bush-fighting, and with them rests the honour of having brought to a successful conclusion the last Maori war.

A BRIGHTER PROSPECT

It is pleasant to be able to turn from the sketch given above of the stirring events in the North Island, which were not only disastrous to its inhabitants, but to the progress of the colony as a whole. The South Island, although it had to aid in the cost of the wars, had no native difficulty. The provinces in that island had been able to go on with their development quite undisturbed.

The province of Otago, which had its origin in the settlement founded by Scotsmen as a home beyond the seas for their fellow-countrymen, in 1848, was being gradually filled with a people who were determined to exhibit the characteristics of their race for shrewdness and industry and making the most of their resources. It contained a large area of land suitable for settlement, although to enable this to be carried out, the hardships and difficulties which the early colonists had to contend with were very great.

The land revenue soon reached a considerable amount. In 1858 it totalled £46,000 and was judiciously spent in roads and bridges and other effective means of opening up the country. The population of Otago province in 1848 was 444; in ten years it amounted to 10,500, and in 1867 it was 56,520. The thoroughness with which preparations for the settlement of this province were made, may be instanced by the fact that the plans for the capital town, Dunedin, had been drawn out in Edinburgh before the first settlers started from the Mother Country.

An enormous impetus was given to the development of the province during these years by the discovery of gold in 1861 at Gabriel's Gully in the Tuapeka district. People flocked to the goldfields from Australia and elsewhere and by 1863 Otago had an output of gold amounting to two millions sterling. The revenue at the same time had amounted up to £470,000.

The province of Otago originally contained all the land in the South Island to the south of the Waitaki River.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

In 1861 the southern port was constituted a province, which was named Southland. In 1870, however, it was re-united to Otago.

The province of Canterbury was situated in the district selected by an Association formed in 1849 to promote colonization. In 1850 the first settlers arrived. Some ten years before this, however, some enterprising Scots had ventured to settle in the district and had cattle and sheep, as well as some cultivated land, to greet the view of the arriving colonists. The province, when first constituted, stretched right across the island and included territory which in 1867 became the province of Westland. [] It was the original intention of the Association to found a purely Church of England settlement, but this exclusiveness could not be maintained if real colonization was to be encouraged—colonization, that is to say, by people who, whatever their religion or sect, were prepared to turn a wilderness into cultivated country.

The country was particularly suited for pastoral pursuits; sheep were introduced and every advantage taken of promoting the success of that industry. Agriculture was also soon carried on over a considerable area. The capital of this province was named Christchurch, and was intended to be a city with colleges, churches, and other adjuncts suitable for a Church of England settlement. It has the churches, including a cathedral of that body, but it also has similar sacred buildings connected with other religious communities.

A few years after the colony was founded a college was established which may be called the "Harrow of New Zealand." Education formed part of the settlement scheme, and as money became available schools were liberally provided.

Two thousand colonists had arrived by the end of 1851, and by the end of 1852 the population had risen to 3,400. The province was enabled by its land revenue

RUSH OF GOLD-SEEKERS

to do much to forward settlement. Roads and bridges were constructed, and the provision of good communication between Christchurch and its port, Lyttelton, was hurried on.

So swiftly was this accomplished that in 1863 the first portion of the railway line between the two towns, which was also the first railway in New Zealand, was opened for traffic. The dividing range of hills presented an obstacle to complete communication for a time, but a tunnel, one and a half miles long, was pierced by December 1st, 1867, and on that day through traffic was established.

The province of Nelson, which was the home of a settlement founded by the New Zealand Association in 1841, was also being peacefully developed. In it was discovered in 1857 the first payable gold-field in New Zealand and in that year 10,437 ounces of gold were obtained.

Gold had also been discovered in the province of Marlborough, which had been formed out of the Nelson territory in 1859. Owing to the discovery of gold on the west coast of the South Island in 1864, a great rush took place of miners and other gold-seekers from the Australian colonies, as well as from parts of New Zealand. The great influx of people into this part of the country and the difficulties of administration due to geographical position led to Canterbury being divided into two provinces.

The portion carved out was given the name of "Westland Province."

Townships, as they are unhappily called in the colonies, soon sprang up and trade developed, especially with Australia. This part of the country which had, up to the advent of the searchers after gold, been practically occupied only by a few Maori, and was in its natural state of dense bush, suddenly became an important centre of busy life. Steamers had appeared on the coast of the southern island which showed that trade was now coming into existence and was worth seeking. All

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

prospects in the south were becoming brighter very quickly.

In the North Island, although the native wars and the consequent state of unrest had caused misery and despondency, there were signs of better times coming. Hawke's Bay had become partly settled through the energy of enterprising men who were determined to make homes for themselves in that rich country, and to further colonization.

Sheep farms were being created and agriculture was commenced.

Gold had been discovered in the Coromandel and Thames districts, and the gold mining industry was developing.

The Provincial Council in Auckland commenced, in 1863, the construction of a railway. The dark shadow of the wars was beginning to pass away, and good hope for the future was held by all.

Considerable excitement and alarm had been caused in Wellington in 1848 by an earthquake which shook down buildings and destroyed much property. The people were naturally very much alarmed, and thought that the addition of earthquakes to wars, would make the country uninhabitable. Some of them even took to a ship to leave the country, but shipwreck prevented them from carrying out their plans. Earthquakes are now much more lightly thought of, but they take place not infrequently and are sometimes severe in both islands.

Much had been done to advance the general well-being of the colony, notwithstanding all the trials it had gone through since representative government was granted. In 1861 the Bank of New Zealand was incorporated. In 1866 steam mail communication with the western world was established and, in the same year, the first telegraph cable was laid across Cook's Strait. In 1867 an Act was passed with the object of promoting science and art in

EARTHQUAKE ALARMS

the colony, and also one dividing the colony into Maori electorates. Thus for the first time the Maori could be directly represented in Parliament. In 1869 a Government Life Insurance Department was established by Act of Parliament.

Movements tending to the development of the resources of the colony and the comfort of its people, and consequently to its prosperity, were thus being made steadily and with due rapidity.

A glance at the rise of the European population and the revenue of the colony during the two periods 1840-1852 and 1853-1870 will be interesting, as showing what British enterprise had been able to accomplish in that short time. The first period embraces the time between the arrival of the first governor, and the end of the administration of the country as a Crown Colony. The second period is that between the granting of responsible government, and the end of the wars with the Maori.

In 1840 the population, exclusive of the military, was 2,050. The revenue was £926.

In 1852 the population, on the same basis, was 27,633 and the revenue £75,764.

In 1870 the population was 248,000 and the revenue was £960,368.

The value of New Zealand produce exported in 1853 was £303,282. In 1870 it was £4,544,682.

CHAPTER II

CONSTITUTION, GENERAL GOVERNMENT AND FRANCHISE

PAST and present constitutions—The Legislature—The Governor
—The Legislative Council—The House of Representatives—
The Franchise—Qualifications of electors—Elections.

PRIOR to the present constitution having been granted, an attempt was made by Earl Grey, Secretary of State for the Colonies, to provide one of his own initiation, but being quite unsuitable to the conditions prevailing in the colony, it practically was never brought into force. This affords an instance of the undesirability of those who occupy important posts in the Home Government assuming that they alone are capable of dealing with the affairs of the various dependencies of the Crown, while in reality they are entirely ignorant of the local conditions, the neglect of which must always result in failure.

Under the constitution framed by Earl Grey, the colony was divided into two provinces, New Ulster and New Munster. A Lieutenant-Governor was appointed to each province, but their reign was short and their duties approximately *nil*.

The present constitution, which owes its origin to Sir George Grey, one of the earlier governors of New Zealand, has stood the test of some fifty years' trial, and experience shows that it was well conceived, and has been worked wisely and judiciously. Some few alterations were made by the Home Government in the scheme which he first submitted. The principal alteration was that of nomination by the Crown, for life, of the members of the Legislative Council, instead of their being elected by Provincial Councils, which latter bodies were to be brought into existence by the proposed constitution.

MAKING THE PROVINCES

The Legislature consists of the Governor, the Legislative Council, and the House of Representatives, and has remained practically unaltered up to the present day.

The powers granted to the Legislature were such that they could make any laws provided that these were not opposed to the spirit of the law of England, that they did not levy duties on the supplies for Her Majesty's forces, and that the laws were not at variance with imperial treaties. Certain acts were subject to disallowance by the Sovereign within a fixed time. In some few cases, reservation for the Sovereign's pleasure was necessary. The entire revenue was put at the absolute disposal of the Colonial Legislature, subject to the payment of certain sums specially authorised by the Act granting the constitution. Any revenue unappropriated was ordered to be divided among the provinces, according to the proportion of gross revenue raised by each. The abolition of the provinces of course nullified this provision.

Under the constitution the colony was divided into six provinces, each of which was to have an Elective Council. The election was in each case for four years, subject always to dissolution by the Governor, when fresh elections had to be held. The Superintendent was elected by the whole of the provincial electors, and the Council by the electors of the various districts into which each province was divided. The number of provincial governments was afterwards increased to nine.

The Provincial Councils were, in like manner, allowed to make certain laws in connection with the government of their provinces ; but customs, superior courts of law, coinage, postal service, lighthouses, Crown and native lands, and a few other matters, were excluded from their powers of operation. Acts passed by the provincial legislatures were subject either to disallowance by the Governor or reserved till his pleasure was signified. Of course, the provincial legislatures could not make laws

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

contrary to the laws of England. Any laws, however, made by them were subject to being over-ridden or modified by Acts of the Colonial Legislature with which they were not consistent. The provincial superintendents had no special administrative powers.

While the machinery of the constitution was on the point of being set in motion, an unfortunate mistake was made by Sir George Grey, as he called into being the minor elements of the Government, namely, the provinces, instead of first starting the controlling power—the legislature.

The Governor, who is appointed by the Sovereign, is of course the head of all things colonial, and is really the visible link that connects the dominion with the Crown. He is the representative of the Sovereign, and in that capacity signs documents, authorizes through the *Gazette* many matters decided on by His Majesty's Ministers, who are really the masters of the situation in the dominion. He also opens Parliament, when he reads to the assembled legislators the speech which has been composed by the Cabinet. He is the channel through which all official communications proceed, and under the terms of the constitution he assents to bills passed by the General Assembly, subject to the reservations, etc., already alluded to, and finally he presides over the Executive. The salary of the Governor is £5,000 a year, in addition to which he receives an annual allowance from the dominion of £1,500 for his establishment and £500 for travelling expenses.

It must not be thought, however, from this short description that what the Governor does for the country is confined to these official functions. His personal influence counts for a good deal in matters of supreme importance.

The Legislative Council was, as already stated, composed of members nominated for life by the Crown. In 1891 an Act was passed making future appointments to

PAID COUNCILLORS

that House tenable for seven years only, dating from the writ of summons to the Council, by the Governor. Such councillors may, however, be reappointed, and it is very frequently done. The Act also gave power to the Council to elect their own Speaker for a period of five years.

The qualifications for appointment as a member of the Legislative Council are that each person must be a male of the age of twenty-one years, a subject of the British Sovereign, either born a British citizen, or naturalized under any Imperial Act, or any Act of the New Zealand General Assembly. Civil servants and contractors to the public service of over £50 are ineligible for appointment.

There are now forty-eight members of the Legislative Council. There cannot be less than ten, but otherwise the number is unlimited. Each councillor is paid £200 a year, by monthly payments, and it is, therefore, practically a salary. Travelling expenses to and from Wellington are allowed. A deduction of £1 5s. per sitting day is made after an absence of fourteen days in any one session, unless it is caused by illness or any other unavoidable cause. These conditions seem to be sufficiently elastic.

Under an Act passed by the Legislative Council in 1891 a member vacates his seat if he:—

- (a) takes an oath of allegiance, or makes any acknowledgment or declaration of obedience to any foreign prince or power ;
- (b) does anything by which he becomes a subject or citizen of any foreign power ;
- (c) becomes bankrupt or compounds with his creditors ;
- (d) is a public defaulter, is attainted of treason, or convicted of felony or any other grievous crime ;
- (e) if he resigns his seat by writing under his own hand and such resignation is accepted by the Governor ;

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

- (f) if for more than one whole session he absents himself from the Council without the permission of the Governor notified to the Council.

By the Council's standing orders, one fourth of its members, exclusive of those on leave of absence, must be present to enable a meeting to be constituted. It should, however, be noted that the Council has itself power to alter this rule from time to time, should it desire to do so.

The House of Representatives was formerly elected for five years, subject to dissolution, at any time, by the Governor. In 1879, however, an Act was passed making Parliaments triennial, subject as before to dissolution by the Governor at any time. Many members have expressed the opinion, that in the first year of a new parliament they are beginning to learn their business ; in the second they really do work ; and in the third they are talking to their constituents. There is a good deal of truth in this, but the period is not likely to be altered.

The number of members of the House of Representatives is eighty ; seventy-six are Europeans, and four are Maori. These numbers were fixed by statute in 1900. Prior to 1908 the North Island returned thirty-eight European members, and the Middle (better known as the "South ") Island also returned thirty-eight members. There are three Maori members from the North Island, and one from the South Island. An Act providing, amongst other things, for two permanent Commissions, named respectively the North and South Island "Representation Commission," was passed in 1905, which enabled the representation of the people in parliament to be properly apportioned. The two Commissions sit as one, to fix the number of districts for the North and South Islands. That being done they confine their functions to their separate islands.

The districts for representation purposes have their boundaries formed upon the basis of the census results.

ADULT SUFFRAGE

In computing the population for electoral purposes, 28 per cent. is added to the rural population, that is, to the number of persons living outside towns of 2,000 inhabitants and over. Then the total European population, with the 28 per cent. added, is divided by the number of districts and the quotient gives the number of members for each district. The Commissioners have power to make certain allowances by way of either addition or deduction in both rural and city electorates, so that proper consideration can be given to the various features which would affect an equitable construction of the districts.

In a country where adult suffrage exists the census is the best guide for adjusting the representation of the people in parliament. For instance, by the census of 1901 the South Island had thirty-six members, and the North Island thirty-four, and the districts having been again defined on the basis of the census of April, 1906, the South Island returned at the 1908 General Election thirty-five members and the North Island forty-one.

Every registered elector being of the male sex and who does not come under any of the disqualifications laid down by the Electoral Act of 1905, is eligible for membership of the House of Representatives. Civil servants and contractors to whom payment of public money to the amount of £50 in any one year, either directly or indirectly, on account of work done by them for the public service, are not eligible for election, and therefore cannot sit or vote. This last disqualification, it will be seen, applies equally to the House of Representatives and the Legislative Council.

A member of the House of Representatives cannot become a civil servant within twelve months of ceasing to be a member. The members of the House of Representatives are paid £25 per month, subject to certain deductions for absence during session, unless that absence is caused by sickness or other unavoidable circumstance.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Travelling expenses to and from Wellington are also allowed to enable them to attend the session. They are thus very comfortably salaried for three years. The allowances and expenses were settled by Act in 1901.

For European parliamentary representation every adult who has been one year in the colony, and three months in one district is entitled to vote. No person is entitled to be registered in more than one electorate, and, consequently, he can only vote in the electorate in which he resides. All the elections are held on the same day.

In 1896 an Act came into force which swept away every vestige of property qualification. For some time previous to that year a freeholder of property to the value of £25, held for six months prior to the day of registration, could register, if not already on the roll owing to residential qualification.

In 1893 came into force the Act which granted the franchise to women. Women, however, are not eligible for election to the House of Representatives, or for nomination as members of the Legislative Council. Great arguments have taken place from time to time as to who was the originator of the scheme for granting votes to women. Four public men, each of whom was at one time Premier, brought this great question to the front, and never ceased to urge its importance. Foremost amongst these was Sir John Hall, who, whether in or out of power, was always using his best endeavours to get the necessary measure placed on the statute-book. He never was able, however, to get it through as one of his own measures ; but to Mr. Seddon was granted the opportunity of doing so, and he availed himself of it. There had been practically no agitation on the part of women in favour of this great constitutional change. Doubtless, however, the interest taken by some of them in the question of prohibition led to their endeavouring to get the franchise,

WOMEN AND TEMPERANCE

with the view of bringing temperance matters more prominently forward. Many things were, of course, said by both the supporters and opponents of the measure, as to what would happen if women were given the vote, and no doubt each political party hoped the change would strengthen its position.

It is almost impossible to estimate what effect the extension of the franchise to women has had upon general legislation, but the practical result has been that they have simply increased the size of the recorded vote. In other words, they have done what many people expected them to do, namely, voted with their men-kind. They have been quite contented with the man-made laws which gave them the vote, and there are no signs that they wish to extend their privileges and go into the actual hurly-burly of politics by becoming eligible for membership of the House of Representatives. Women took the matter very quietly and said to themselves: "Well! we have got the vote and now we must use it." They probably went to their nearest male relatives, or closest friends of that sex, and asked them what was the best way to exercise their newly-found powers. At all events, they took the new task in hand cheerfully, as they have done in the case of every one of the many tasks that have fallen to their lot in colonial life. Family harmony has not been disturbed, nor have discordant elements been introduced into the relationship of the sexes to one another. Women went to the poll in great numbers at the first election after they obtained the vote, and the proportion per cent. of those on the roll who voted was very high, 85·18.

Although it is true that the percentage of female voters was greater in 1905 than in 1902, it should be stated that the percentage in 1893 (the year in which the franchise was granted to them) was greater than in 1905. It may be, however, that the comparison between the years 1902 and 1905 indicate a greater interest being taken in

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

parliamentary elections ; still it is not at all safe to assume that such is the case.

Every seaman engaged in any ship owned or registered in New Zealand is considered to be a resident there during the time he is so employed. He can claim to be enrolled in the district in which is situated the port at which his ship usually calls, after he has satisfied the registrar of electors of the district as to the validity of his claim. On the strength of his enrolment, any seaman appearing personally before a registrar or collector of customs, and demanding an "Elector's Right," is entitled to have one given to him. Any seaman who is the holder of an Elector's Right, may vote in any part of the dominion for the election of a member of the House, for the district in which he is enrolled at either a by or General Election. He can get from the collector of customs, or, in the case of there not being one at the place where he is, the post-master, or returning officer of the district, a ballot paper on which to record his vote. This voting paper is enclosed in an envelope addressed to the returning officer of the proper district, in the presence of the voter, and sent by the local official to the said returning officer. He can exercise his vote at any time between the issue of the writ and the close of the poll. The collector of customs, or other duly authorized official, must telegraph every day between the issue of the writ and the close of the poll to the returning officer of the district in which an election is being held, the number of ballot papers applied for and exercised, and which have been sent by him to the returning officer. The number marked on the "Elector's Right" for which a ballot paper has been issued must also be stated. The returning officer then compares the signature of the voter on the application-for-a-ballot paper with that on the demand for an "Elector's Right." If satisfied that they are the same, he places the paper in the ballot-box. This right of the

THE SAILORS' VOTE

seaman cannot be in force for more than twelve months from the date of application, but it can be renewed.

The general roll of electors is closed annually on April 15th, and after that supplementary rolls are made up. No additions can be made to the latter after the issue of the writ. The registrars of electors are responsible for the rolls being kept in proper order. Every registrar of births and deaths must send to the registrars of electors before the fifth day of each month a list of all adult deaths registered by him during the preceding month. Registrars of marriages have also to send, in the same manner, a list of the marriages of adult women registered by him. Aliens, lunatics, and people convicted of offences punishable by death, or one year or more of imprisonment cannot be on any roll, unless they have received a free pardon or undergone the punishment to which they were sentenced.

Candidates at elections can have the free use for their meetings, except for the charges of lighting and cleaning, of all primary schools receiving a parliamentary grant. Every candidate has to deposit with the returning officer £10 when he is nominated. Unsuccessful candidates who do not poll one-fourth of the total number of votes cast for the successful candidate, forfeit their deposits. Any candidate may withdraw not later than five clear days before polling day. If this is done in proper form his deposit is returned to him.

At all elections the polling day is a public holiday, after midday. No liquor can be sold in a public-house between noon and seven p.m. on polling days. The Deputy returning officer of every polling booth must announce at the close of the poll, the numbers of votes given for the respective candidates.

As before stated there are four Maori members of the House of Representatives, the districts returning them being :—

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The Northern Maori District.

The Eastern ,, ,,

The Western ,, ,,

The Southern ,, ,,

The members must be chosen by the votes of the adult Maori inhabiting the several districts. Every adult Maori can vote, except those disqualified by conviction of an offence punishable by death or by imprisonment with hard labour for three years or more. Every male Maori elector can be a member. Half-castes can vote as, and for Europeans.

The extreme simplicity of the franchise and electoral arrangements in New Zealand is well worthy of note. If the voters do not exercise their privileges, it is not because they have any difficulty in arriving at their powers, but because they do not care sufficiently about the matter to use them.

There is no plural voting, and every election throughout the dominion is held on the same day. This last provision has the advantage of preventing electors from, so to speak, running with the hare and hunting with the hounds. When there are many what are now called "Mandates" the electors are not able to see what has been the result of other elections, and thus be able to vote on the winning side. Thus there is secured a much truer reflex of the opinion of the country than is obtained under other conditions.

The electoral law of 1905, which has been quoted, came into effect at the recent General Election of 1908.

Elections in New Zealand are very quiet and prosaic affairs in comparison with those held in the Mother Country. There are neither bands, colours, nor placards, and, as has been already stated, the public-houses are closed during a large portion of the polling day. There is, of course, much excitement, as must always be the case

QUIET ELECTIONS

when any important matter has to be settled by a public vote, and the friends of the various candidates naturally endeavour to secure votes for their especial favourite. When the total poll is declared, which it usually is on polling day, the pros and cons raise cheers or groans at the result and then the whole matter is concluded.

In the large towns the enterprising newspapers display at the close of each poll, on screens, probably by electric light, the figures received from time to time from the various electoral districts, showing the number of votes recorded for each candidate. There is a little more noise perhaps than in the smaller places, and the crowd which had assembled to see the results disperses quietly with the knowledge that for three years, except in the case of a dissolution, or by-election, there will not be any more excitement of the same nature.

The second ballot was introduced into the elective system of the dominion during the last session of Parliament, and under it many of the elections of 1908 were decided. This system was not introduced without much heated argument, during which some proposals in the bill first presented to Parliament were eliminated.

This Act introduced a great change in the electoral system, and it will be well to describe what that is. No candidate can claim to be elected unless he has received an absolute majority of votes at the regular poll. This means that a candidate to be successful at the poll must receive more than one half of all the votes recorded.

If he does not do so, then a second ballot is taken between the two candidates securing the greatest number of votes.

Only two candidates can compete under the second ballot.

Should such a thing occur as the second and third candidates securing an equal number of votes then the

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

returning officer gives a casting vote in favour of either of the candidates as he may think fit.

The candidate who receives the greatest number of votes at the second ballot is elected.

No candidate can withdraw from the second ballot.

The second ballot must be taken on the seventh day after the close of the poll on the first ballot, except in certain districts where, on account of the difficulties of the country, fourteen days are allowed.

The expenses of a candidate in a second ballot are limited to fifty pounds.

These expenses are refunded to each candidate to an extent not exceeding fifty pounds, according to the decision of the Minister of Finance.

Twenty-two second ballots became necessary at the General Election held in November, 1908.

CHAPTER III

LOCAL AND MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

DIVISION into counties and boroughs—Population—Franchise system—Harbour boards.

WHEN the abolition of the provinces took place in 1876, counties were created. This, of course, involved the necessity of steps being taken to provide the machinery for carrying out this new form of local government. The Act, which was passed in 1875, has been amended from time to time when better methods of conducting local government were shown by experience to be necessary.

By this Act New Zealand was divided into counties and boroughs. Certain outlying islands are not within county boundaries. Stewart Island is a county by itself, and the Chatham Islands also form one county. Boroughs are not included in counties for county government purposes, although geographically within them, but all other towns are. The dominion is at present divided into ninety-eight counties, of which there are sixty-one in the North Island and thirty-five in the South Island. The remaining two counties are those just mentioned.

Under the provisions of various Acts dealing with counties new ones may be added or divisions made of those already constituted, as necessity arises.

The county population is 249,752 in the North Island and 208,560 in the South Island. The two counties, Stewart Island and Chatham Islands, had at the time of the last census (1906) a population of 288 and 197 respectively. This brings the county population to a total of 458,797. The boroughs number 105, and have a population of 424,614 persons. There are also within the counties, road districts and town districts. Of these

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

there are 209 road districts and forty-four town districts. There are twenty-eight Harbour Boards. In addition to the foregoing there are river districts, drainage districts, water supply districts, and harbour boards, all of which exercise the necessary functions implied by their names.

The franchise system in the case of boroughs is that each person of the age of twenty-one years, entitled to be enrolled, has one vote, and no more, derived from one of the following qualifications.

- (a) According to law the owner in a borough of freehold property, the capital value of which is not less than £25. The fact of there being any other person in occupation of any part of the land as a tenant does not affect the owner's rights.
- (b) One whose name appears in the rate-book in respect of any rateable property in any borough.
- (c) One who has been for at least three months prior to making up the lists of electors a tenant or sub-tenant of either the whole or part of a building in the borough of which the rent is not less than £10 a year. No person can be entered on the burgess list for more than one qualification; but if he has more than one he can choose which he desires to be enrolled under.

If either a husband or a wife has a qualification it is possessed by both of them.

The Town Clerk is responsible for the electors' list being made out annually and kept up-to-date. The Council has power to make any necessary corrections in the list.

A borough, as usual everywhere, consists of a mayor, councillors, and burgesses. The mayor is elected by all the electors of a borough.

The Council of a borough, which is not divided into wards, must have not less than six or more than twelve councillors, with, of course, a mayor as president.

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

In the case of a borough which is divided into wards and which has a population not exceeding 30,000, the number of councillors is as just quoted.

Should the population exceed 30,000 there cannot be less than twelve or more than fifteen councillors.

Any person can be elected either as Mayor or councillor who is a qualified elector under the conditions already quoted.

There are certain grounds of disqualification, as for instance being a lunatic, an alien, an undischarged bankrupt, or one who has been convicted of certain offences, unless the punishment awarded has been completed, or a free pardon granted; or a person concerned in any contract with the Council exceeding £5 for one contract or £10 altogether in one year. Candidates for office, either as Mayor or Councillor, have to deposit £10 with the returning officer when they are nominated. Any candidate who does not poll one-eighth of the number of votes given to the successful one, forfeits his deposit.

The council has considerable powers in connection with levying general and special rates for various purposes, amongst which may be quoted lighting, public works, water supply, etc. Strong powers are given to the Council to enable them to deal firmly with the very important matter of sanitation. In fact, a Council is enabled to do everything necessary for the well-being of the community, including the erection of dwellings for the workers.

In the case of counties, every person of the age of twenty-one years, whose name is on the electors' roll of a riding of a county, is a county elector as long as that roll is in force. Every person whose name is on the valuation roll of any road or town district in a riding or on the electoral roll of any outlying district is also an elector.

Miners holding a "miner's right" have one vote in

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

the riding in which they have resided for two months prior to an election.

Rolls are made up for each riding.

There cannot be more than nine ridings in a county.

The voting power is as follows:—

Those persons shown on the valuation roll of a county as having rateable property not exceeding £1,000 in value have one vote; those having under the same conditions property exceeding £1,000 in value, but not exceeding £2,000 have two votes; those whose property exceeds £3,000 in value have three votes.

Three votes is a limit which cannot be exceeded in any case.

Any qualified elector can be elected as a county councillor. Certain persons are ineligible for election under the same disqualification conditions as exist in the case of boroughs.

The Clerk of the Council is charged with the duty of preparing by the 22nd April in each year a list of all the county electors in each riding. The names of all those who have not paid their rates on the preceding 31st March are omitted from the lists.

The governing body of a county consists of a chairman and council.

The chairman is elected by a new council at its first meeting and after that every year at the annual meeting. Each riding elects its own councillor. There cannot be less than six or more than nine councillors, except in the case of counties which under the powers given in the Act become united. Then there must be one councillor for each riding.

The council has power under the various Acts to levy general and special rates for various purposes, to obtain loans, to deal with public works, telegraphs, harbour works, tramways, irrigation, drainage, charitable institutions, agricultural colleges, etc.

HARBOUR MANAGEMENT

It would be impossible to give an account that would clearly show the duties and responsibilities of all the local bodies in New Zealand, but owing to the prominent position that is occupied by the harbour boards, to whom is entrusted the management and regulation of shipping in the various ports, a short description of their constitution and duties may be given.

Prior to 1878, although there were certain Acts dealing with marine questions generally, the various ports and harbours were dealt with by ordinances especially affecting the province in which they were situated.

The Act of 1878 laid down that harbour boards should be constituted of :—

- (a) Members appointed by the governor.
- (b) Ex-officio members, either as chairmen of chambers of commerce, mayors of boroughs, chairmen of town boards, or chairmen of county councils, etc., according to the circumstances of the particular place.
- (c) Elected members : some by borough or county councils ; some by chambers of commerce from amongst their members ; others by ratepayers in certain areas affected, and by those paying shipping and harbour dues.

Extensive powers were naturally given to the harbour boards for the control and management of harbours to enable them to deal fully with the matters of pilots and pilotage dues, buoys, lights, wrecks, harbour dues, etc.

The foregoing gives a somewhat technical account of both general and local government throughout the dominion, and the very simple arrangements by which the franchise is exercised by the electors in New Zealand, arrangements which both in regard to parliament and local councils enable the citizens of the dominion to enjoy their privileges with a minimum of trouble to themselves.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Thus the general reader will be able to draw comparison with methods which prevail in other parts of the Empire, and the intending settler will be able to form some idea of the different systems of government which he will find in the country of his adoption.

CHAPTER IV

TAXATION

PRINCIPLE of taxation—Exemptions from land-tax—Provisions to prevent evasion of land-tax—Income-tax—Who are exempted from income-tax.

THE direct taxation in New Zealand has twice varied in form during the past twenty years. In 1878 a land-tax was passed during the premiership of Sir George Grey, but it did not commend itself to the community generally, and was replaced by a property-tax shortly after the defeat of his ministry in July, 1879. This tax was in turn repealed on the advent to power of the party now in office and a Land and Income Assessment Act was passed. In October, 1892, the first Land-tax and Income-tax Act came into existence on the basis of the Assessment Act already referred to.

An Amending Act was passed in 1893 and this was followed in 1900 by an Act to consolidate previous legislation and is called the principal Act. A Land and Income Assessment Act was passed in 1907 which is considered to form part of the principal Act and deals almost entirely with the graduated land-tax which will hereafter be referred to.

In 1908 another Act under the same title was passed.

The principle of the taxation brought into existence by the legislation of 1892 is however maintained throughout. The object of the legislation in regard to land taxation has been to break down any land monopoly and the aggregation of large estates.

The income-tax is a graduated one and is therefore based upon the principle that those who are best able to contribute to the funds of the State shall pay more than

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

those who are not so favourably circumstanced. This is a perfectly equitable principle. There is now a combined land and income-tax in force.

The latter is levied on all incomes except those derived from rents or profits connected with the direct use or cultivation of land, and interest from mortgages of land.

The land-tax is a capital tax and therefore, of course, the income derived from land is not taxed under the income-tax. Mortgages on land are also taxed on their capital value.

The Indirect Taxation is made up of customs duties, and excise duty on beer made in the dominion.

The land-tax is assessed on the gross saleable value of the land, less the value of all the improvements made upon it. That is, the taxpayer escapes all land taxation on the material and labour that he has made use of for the improvement of the land he occupies. The following is the wording of the Act :—

“ The unimproved value of any piece of land means the sum which the owner's estate or interest therein, if unencumbered by mortgage or other charge thereon, and if no improvement existed on that particular piece of land, might be expected to realize at the time of valuation, if offered for sale on such reasonable terms and conditions as a *bona fide* seller might be expected to require.”

The following are the principal data on which “ unimproved value ” is determined :—

- (a) Increased value of the land due to the successful working of other lands in the same district.
- (b) Progressive works carried out by the State.
- (c) General prosperity of the country.
- (d) High markets for produce, etc.

Every owner of land of which the unimproved value, together with mortgages owing to him (but after the deduction of mortgages owing by him) does not exceed £1,500, is allowed an exemption from taxation of £500. Where the value exceeds £1,500 the exemption diminishes by £1 for every £2 of increases value. Thus, after the

UNIMPROVED VALUE

value of the land has reached £2,500 there is no exemption.

There are two taxes levied on land :—

(a) Ordinary Land-tax ;

(b) Graduated Land-tax.

(c) The Ordinary Land-tax is as follows :—

One penny in the pound on the unimproved value ; mortgages on land are also taxed at the rate of three farthings in the pound on the capital value.

(d) The Graduated Land-tax is payable on the assessed value of unimproved land, when that amount reaches £5,000.

The scale begins at one-sixteenth of a penny in the pound on the assessed value of land from £5,000 to £7,000, and reaches thirteen-sixteenths of a penny in the case of land valued at from £35,000 to £40,000. Between the unimproved values of £40,000 and £41,000 the rate of taxation is eight shillings for every £100 of such value. For every additional £1,000 of value after £40,000 the percentage is increased by one-fifth of a shilling. The increased rate of these percentages is in each case charged on the total unimproved value of the land.

The rates just quoted reach their maximum when the value of the land reaches £200,000. After £200,000 value is reached the rate of taxation becomes £2 for every £100 of value. On the 31st March, 1910, the progressive scale of percentages will be increased by 25 per cent. on all land over £40,000 in value, other than that used for business purposes. Business premises mean land included in the area of a building used for business purposes only, together with such additional land immediately adjoining it which has not a greater area than the building itself. This additional land must be used and occupied in connection with the business carried on in the building.

A building is considered to be used for business purposes when it is used exclusively or principally by the owner

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

or any occupiers for carrying out any business, trade, or industry.

The value of minerals, timber, and flax is not taken into account in valuing land, and consequently no land-tax is payable on account of their value.

Everyone getting profit out of minerals, timber, or flax, whether it is obtained by rent, royalties, or commercial undertakings is charged under income-tax. Should the commissioner however not be satisfied that the working of the minerals, etc., is carried on in good faith and to proper extent, then the minerals, etc., are assessed for land-tax.

In addition to the taxation already referred to, there is yet another form which applies to owners of land of a greater value than £5,000 who are absentees. In this case the graduated tax is fifty per cent. higher than in the case of the ordinary taxpayer. An absentee is defined as one who has not been himself present in New Zealand for two years out of the four immediately preceding that for which the graduated tax is assessed.

Should, however, a person have acquired all the land he owns in New Zealand within four years of that in which the graduated assessment is made, and have been in the dominion at least half of the time between first acquiring land and the year of assessment, he is not considered an absentee.

The following are the general exemptions from land-tax :

(a) All land or mortgages on land owned by

The Crown ;

Local authorities ;

Friendly societies ;

Building societies ;

Public charitable or public educational institutions
not carried on for pecuniary profit ;

Savings banks ;

Commissioners of Public Sinking Funds ;

THE ABSENTEE AND THE TAX

Religious societies, so far as the proceeds are devoted to the support of aged or infirm clergy or their widows or children.

(b) All native land not leased to or occupied by any person other than the native owners.

(c) The site of :—

A place of worship for any religious society or a place of residence for any of the clergy or ministers of such society ;

A charitable or educational institution (or other than a public institution referred to above under a) not carried on exclusively for pecuniary profit. This exemption does not extend to more than fifteen acres ;

A public library, athenæum, mechanics' institute, public museum, school of mines, or masonic lodge ;

A show-ground or place of meeting of any agricultural society ;

A public cemetery or public burial ground ;

A public garden, domain, recreation ground, or other public reserve ;

A public road or street ;

A public railway to the extent of the land actually used for permanent way and for yards, sheds, and buildings for purposes of traffic only ;

(d) The value of timber, minerals, and flax ;

(e) The mortgages of banking companies and loan building and investment companies whose head offices are in New Zealand.

Land-tax assessments are made and the accounts are posted to taxpayers about the 1st November in each year, and are payable about the middle of that month. Fourteen days are allowed for payment. At the expiration of the fourteen days there is a further impost of ten per cent. on unpaid taxes. The tax may be paid either direct to the Commissioner of Taxes, or at any postal money order office in the dominion.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The number of land-tax payers in the year 1897-1898 was 13,132, and the amount of tax collected was £267,286. In 1907-1908 the number of taxpayers was 28,991 and the tax received £537,846.

A large amount of detail in connection with the New Zealand land taxation has been given in order that readers who wish to obtain information on the subject may easily gather the reasons that have influenced the legislature. The guiding principles of land valuation have also been given at some length, in order to show what is considered in New Zealand to be the right interpretation of the term "unimproved value."

Many provisions have been made to prevent the land-tax being evaded, for example :—

Shareholders are liable as if owners of a company's land in proportion to their interest in the paid-up capital ;

The buyer in possession of land is liable to the tax although conveyance has not been executed ;

The seller remains liable until fifteen per cent. of the purchase money is paid ;

A trustee is liable as if beneficially entitled ;

Mortgagees are not liable, but mortgagees-in-possession are liable to the tax like lessees.

It will be seen that not only has every precaution been taken to prevent any evasion of the land-tax, but that the form in which it is levied ensures that the principle guiding its foundation shall be fully maintained.

The absentee-tax seems very suitable to the conditions of a country which is being developed. It reminds those who have accumulated large properties from which they obtain considerable wealth that it is their duty to spend a great portion of it in the country whence it was derived, thus benefiting the whole population.

INCOME-TAX EXEMPTIONS

Young communities naturally say that in the commencement of their life they will not allow old world usages that are unsuitable to the condition of a new country to be engrafted in their legislative system.

In 1896 an Act was passed by which the whole of the land valuation required either by the general government or by local bodies has to be carried out by valuers employed by the State, who receive a regular salary and are reliable officers.

This has saved an enormous amount of trouble, as prior to the Act coming into force separate valuers were temporarily appointed by the various Government departments when valuations were required, and the same state of affairs existed as regards local bodies. Now there is uniformity and direct responsibility. In former years the valuation was often carried out very imperfectly and by very unreliable people.

The income-tax is assessed only on incomes derived from other sources than those of the use or produce of land.

Each taxpayer is allowed an exemption up to £300, with an additional allowance on life insurance premiums on the taxpayer's own life up to £50. This £300 exemption is not allowed in the case of those (whether firms or individuals) who do not reside in the dominion, nor in the case of a company.

All incomes between £300 and £1,300 pay a tax of sixpence in the pound.

Incomes over £1,300 pay a tax of sixpence in the pound on the first £1,000, and one shilling in the pound on any amount over that.

The incomes exempted from taxation are:—

The Crown ;

The salary and emoluments of the Governor ;

Local authorities ;

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Friendly societies, as regards business connected with their membership only ;

Building societies ;

Public, charitable, and educational establishments ;

Savings banks ;

The Commissioners of General Government and local body sinking funds ;

The funds of religious societies which are devoted only to the support of old and infirm ministers and their families ;

Imperial pensioners, on pensions paid by the Crown and already taxed in the United Kingdom or some British possession ;

Co-operative dairy factory companies, on income derived from the dairy produce supplied by its own shareholders ;

Public societies not carrying on business for pecuniary gain ;

The owner of land in respect of rent or profits derived from its direct use and cultivation.

A mortgagee of land.

Returns of income received by all persons, firms, and companies have to be furnished by them annually. These returns must be in the hands of the Commissioners of Taxes in Wellington by the 1st of June in each year, and must include particulars of the actual income of the year ending the preceding 31st March. The assessments in connection with income are sent out about the 1st January in each year. They are made payable about the 31st of that month, but fourteen days' grace is given for the payments. After the days of grace have expired an additional ten per cent. has to be paid.

It is needless to say that the Government has every return closely examined by the officials of the tax office, and takes every precaution to prevent any evasions.

EDUCATION OF THE TAXPAYER

Special powers are given under the Act for enabling the Commissioner to examine all the books of a taxpayer, and to call at any time for papers, etc., containing evidence of the taxpayer's income. Government departments, local authorities, and every firm, etc., have to furnish annual returns of the amounts paid to their several employees. Penalties are, of course, provided for not making returns, or for doing so incorrectly or fraudulently.

It is claimed by the authorities that a very perceptible improvement can be noticed in the taxpayer's book-keeping since the first years of the imposition of the income-tax. The tax has therefore not only realized a considerable sum of money, but has had an educative effect.

As regards permissible deductions, it may be said that they only comprise losses, and such expenses as must necessarily be incurred in the production of an income.

The net assessed income was in 1908, £7,260,713. The number of income-tax payers was 10,420. The income-tax yielded in the year 1907-1908, £304,904. In the year after the imposition of the income-tax, 1892-1893, the amount paid under that tax was £67,367.

It is said by the Registrar-General, the writer of the book from which the above figures are taken (*New Zealand Official Year Book*), that the statements of the amounts given for the period 1892-1895 must be accepted with caution, as the number of persons liable to the tax may not have been really ascertained. Granting that to be the case, still the increased amount paid each year affords evidence of steadily advancing prosperity.

The increased receipts from income-tax between the years 1897-98 and 1907-8 amounted to about 212 per cent., whereas the increase of population during the same period was only about 30 per cent.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The general Government taxation for the last two financial years was as follows :—

	YEAR ENDING	
	31st March, 1907.	31st March, 1908.
Indirect taxation..	£3,048,622	£3,217,538
Direct taxation ..	£1,215,933	£1,428,216
Total ..	<u>£4,264,555</u>	<u>£4,645,754</u>

This shows an amount of taxation per head of the mean European population of £5 0s. 4d. The taxation levied by the various local bodies for the year ended March 31st, 1907, the latest period for which figures are available, was £1,338,536, or £1 9s. 8d. per head on the same basis as quoted above.

This shows the total amount of taxation per head to be £6 10s.

It may be said that this is a heavy burden for the people of the dominion to bear, but it is evident from the flourishing condition of the country, and the general indications of continued prosperity, that it is by no means insupportable.

CHAPTER V

NATIVE QUESTION

No native question—Maori Parliament.

THERE is one subject always of great interest in regard to any country occupied by distinct races. Especially is this the case with regard to any part of the British dominions, in which the original occupiers have eventually lost the dominant position they held, and have become subjects of the Crown on an equality with those who have acquired the country.

Information is commonly sought for by the query :
“ How does the native question stand ? ”

As regards the Dominion of New Zealand, the answer might be summed up shortly in the words : “ There is none.”

Happily for New Zealand the wars which ended in 1870 practically settled once and for all the question of supremacy. A recurrence of hostilities is impossible, not only on account of the great preponderance in numbers of the European population, but also because the Maori themselves are a law-abiding people, who have seen the advantages they have gained by becoming subjects of the British Crown.

They join in the making of the laws of the country, they have their “ reserves ” of which they know they will never be deprived, and they participate in the conditions which have arisen from the active prosecution of all the public works, and from the other national movements that have resulted in the great prosperity and general well-being of the whole community.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The "King Country" has ceased to exist as one closed to the Europeans, and the Urewera country—peopled by a powerful tribe which was never conquered, and would not, after the Maori wars ceased, have any communication with the white race—is now open to all. In 1904 this country was visited by the Governor, Lord Ranfurly, at the express invitation of the Maori, who received him with every native honour and greeted him as a friend.

The Urewera natives pride themselves on being the direct descendants of the people found by the Maori on their arrival in New Zealand.

The Maori have what they call a "Parliament." It is purely an informal gathering which is held, now at one place, now at another, in the North Island, and is called by the chiefs to discuss some grievance or another, as well as legislation connected with the Maori race. These meetings are looked upon by many of the Europeans with ridicule, and as held only to afford opportunities to the Maori of displaying their great powers of oratory. They are, however, of value in making known the Maori feelings on many matters, and act distinctly as safety-valves.

That there will be for a long time to come many subjects affecting the relations between both races which need calm discussion and careful adjustment goes without saying, but that there will ever arise again anything that can be called a "Native Question" in the sense that generally applies to that term is quite impossible. The old tribal antipathies may still to some extent exist, indeed, it is certain that they do, but these cannot in any way affect the present friendly feeling so advantageous to both Maori and Europeans.

That the tribes are as one in their loyalty to the British Crown was amply proved by the large number of Maori who volunteered for service in South Africa during the Boer war and by the disappointment they obviously felt when circumstances rendered it impossible to accept their

LAW-ABIDING NATIVES

proffered aid. It would scarcely be possible to imagine that these people, who were so anxious to assist in asserting the supremacy of British arms in South Africa, should endeavour to do anything antagonistic to British rule in their own country.

CHAPTER VI

CUSTOMS AND TARIFF

CUSTOMS—Rates of duty on various items—Reciprocal trade.

As in other countries, so in New Zealand, the earliest means by which revenue was raised was through customs duties. That the inhabitants should be satisfied with a system of raising money, which, in their opinion, was a burden upon the trade of the country, could not be expected. The Governor of the day, in the endeavour to please the trading community, abolished customs duties in the North, with the natural result that other parts of the country clamoured for a like concession. In order to please everybody he abolished these duties altogether. He then introduced a property-tax to take the place of those abolished. This being still more distasteful, customs duties were levied once more.

In order that public works may be carried on and the necessities provided for, which are inseparable from the government of any country, money must be raised somehow. A system had to be devised by which every section of the community would contribute to the common fund necessary for these purposes. Customs duties, to a certain extent, met that requirement.

In the imposition of the duties New Zealand has been guided by the principle of helping to provide the necessary revenue while at the same time encouraging its growing industries. The rate at which duties are levied has, of necessity, been altered from time to time so as to meet varying requirements. The result is at all events that, while a considerable contribution is made to revenue, there are at the same time about 56,000 people employed

TOBACCO AND ALCOHOL TAXES

in industries whose annual output may be estimated at over twenty-three millions sterling.

The customs duties on goods imported into New Zealand are levied by *ad valorem* duties in some cases, and by specific charges of varying amounts in others. The *ad valorem* duties range from 5 to 40 %.

The latter rate is charged on clothing made to the order or measurement of residents in the dominion for their individual use, and also upon volunteer clothing made from measurements sent from New Zealand.

It is somewhat difficult to understand why these particular classes of goods were selected for special treatment.

In the case of all prison-made goods imported there is a further duty of 20 %.

Excise duties are levied upon beer made in New Zealand, tinctures, and other medicinal preparations made with spirit, and on cigars, cigarettes, snuff, and tobacco manufactured in the dominion.

Speaking generally of the tariff, it may be said that dutiable articles are divided into sixteen classes.

Class I.—Foods and Articles for Human Consumption

For this class there are thirty-one items bearing a fixed duty—five bearing a 20% *ad valorem* duty and two 25 %.

Class II.—Tobacco

For this class the rates are fixed.

Cigarettes, cigars, and snuff being subject to a duty of 7s. the lb., tobacco 3s. 6d. the lb., except unmanufactured, which is entered for manufacture in a licensed factory in New Zealand. In this case the duty is 2s. per lb., but it bears excise duty according to a varying scale when manufactured into cigars, etc.

Class III.—Alcoholic Beverages

In this class all the items are taxed at fixed rates,

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

spirits bearing a duty of 16s. per gallon. Wines from 2s. to 9s. per gallon, the lower rate being leviable on certain wines imported under the New Zealand and South African Reciprocity Act. Ale and beer, 2s. per gallon.

Class IV.—Non-Alcoholic Beverages

Some subject to fixed rates and some to 20% *ad valorem* duties.

Class V.—Drugs, Medicines, etc.

Some subject to fixed rates, and others to 20 % *ad valorem* duties.

In this class opium is rated at £2 per lb., but none can be imported in any form suitable for smoking.

Class VI.—Clothing and Textile Goods

One item, "Raw Cotton," pays a fixed rate of 4d. per lb.

All other items bear *ad valorem* duties ranging from 20 to 40%.

Class VII.—Leather and Manufactures of Leather

Some items bear duties at fixed rates and some *ad valorem* duties ranging from 15 to 22½ %.

Class VIII.—Furniture and Household Furniture

The items all bear *ad valorem* duties.

These range from 20 to 25%.

Class IX.—China, Glass and Earthen Goods

Some items at fixed rates, and some *ad valorem* duties of 20 and 25 %.

Class X.—Fancy Goods, Musical Instruments, etc.

Two items at fixed rates, and the rest duties of 20 and 25 % *ad valorem*.

Class XI.—Paper Manufactures and Stationery

Some articles are at fixed rates, and some are charged *ad valorem* duties ranging from 15 to 25 %.

MANUFACTURED ARTICLES TAXED

Class XII.—Manufactures of Metal

In this class some items are charged with duties at fixed rates, and others with *ad valorem* duties ranging from 5 to 25 %.

Class XIII.—Timber and Articles made from Timber

Timber manufactured into posts, rails, shingles, etc., and sawn timber are charged at varying fixed rates, and others are subject to *ad valorem* duties of 20 %. Amongst these articles are motor vehicles of which 6,205 were imported in 1907, and 532 of which were of British manufacture.

Class XIV.—Oils, Paints, etc.

Here, as in other classes, certain goods are charged at fixed rates while some bear an *ad valorem* duty, in this case 25 %.

Class XV.—Agricultural and Farm Products, etc.

Here, again, certain items are charged under fixed rates, while others bear an *ad valorem* duty, the latter being 20 %. Under those charged at fixed rates, horned cattle are charged at 10s. each and horses £1.

Class XVI.—Miscellaneous

In this class thirteen items are subject to fixed rates, one to an *ad valorem* duty of 10 %, nine to 20 %, and four to 25 %.

The customs tariff was completely revised in 1907, when many articles were placed upon the full list and some had increased duties placed upon them.

When the revision was being made, some changes in the preferential tariff took place, by which the surtax on various goods not the produce of the British dominions was increased.

The full effect of all these tariff charges cannot be ascertained until all the details for 1908 have been analysed in the dominion.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

It is sufficient to say that under the present tariff two-fifths of all the items come under the preferential system to be hereafter alluded to.

It may be of interest to compare the duties on certain articles of consumption which are levied in the Mother Country and New Zealand respectively. For example :—

Articles.	Duty in Great Britain.	Duty in New Zealand.
Tea	5d. per lb.	{ On tea not the produce of the Empire, 2d. per lb. }
Cocoa and Chocolate	2d. „ „	3d. per lb.
Roasted Coffee and Chicory	2d. „ „	3d. „ „
Raw Coffee	14s. per cwt.	Free. „ „
Sugar	From 10d. to 1s.10d. per cwt.	Free
Treacle and Molasses	From 1s. to 2s. 9d. per cwt.	Free

The customs duties secured during the financial year ended March 31st, 1907, was £2,941,040, and the excise duty on beer was £107,582.

The revenue from those duties per head of the European population was £3 7s. 2d. in 1906 and £3 9s. 7d. in 1907. The excise duty during that period varied only 2½ pence.

The customs revenue for the financial year ended on March 31st, 1908, was £3,103,565, and the revenue from excise duty on beer during the same period was £113,973. The customs revenue has been increased by the “Preferential and Reciprocal Trade Act,” but the exemption in favour of British-grown tea has resulted in a considerable loss to the revenue.

In 1903 a departure was made from the general principle with regard to customs duties. This was in the introduction of the system of preference under certain conditions. In the year named an Act called “The

FIRST STEP IN RECIPROCITY

Preferential and Reciprocal Trade Act" was passed. This contained provisions of a far-reaching nature embodied in the following explanatory statements.

RECIPROCAL TRADE

When any country, *being part of the British Dominions*, reduces or abolishes, or proposes to do so, the duty on any product or manufacture of New Zealand, the Governor is authorized to enter into an agreement to reduce or abolish the duty on any articles the produce or manufacture of such country to an extent that the established revenue so remitted shall equal as nearly as possible the remission by that country. Such agreements, however, require ratification by Parliament. Similarly where any country, *not being part of the British Dominions*, reduces or abolishes, or proposes to do so, the duty on any product or manufacture of New Zealand, the Governor is authorized, subject to, or by virtue of a treaty with his Majesty, to negotiate for an agreement to reduce or abolish the duty on any articles the produce or manufacture of such country to such an extent that the estimated revenue so remitted in New Zealand shall equal as far as possible what is remitted by that country, subject to Parliamentary ratification. New Zealand, having made up its mind to adopt a system of preferential trade, lost no time in taking steps to that end.

To give immediate practical effect to this decision an additional duty was imposed on certain articles which were *not of British origin*. The increased duties are set forth in the "Tariff Act," 1907. Take cement, for example. The duty is increased 100 %. In the case of bicycles and similar machines, and all parts connected with them, candles, clocks, earthenware, firearms, and many other things it would be impossible to mention, the duty is increased 50 %. There are some articles in

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

the case of which the increase of duty only amounts to 20 %, in others to only 10 %.

In regard to the way in which the Reciprocity principle laid down by the Act of 1903 has been carried out, an illustration may be found in "The New Zealand and South African Customs Duties Reciprocity Act, 1906," which provides for a reduction of duties on certain articles imported from South Africa in return for remissions on produce sent from New Zealand to the colonies in that country.

It should be mentioned that no duty is leviable in the dominion on tea produced in any country under the British Crown, except it is in packets not exceeding one pound in weight.

It will be perfectly evident from what has just been stated that, although powers were given under the Act of 1903 to enter into negotiations with countries other than British dominions, the main object was to promote trade within the Empire.

CHAPTER VII

GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS

ORIGINAL and present seat of government—Method of administration—Duties of the Public Trustee—The Civil Service.

THE seat of government, as originally chosen by the first Governor, was at Auckland and doubtless it was one which at the time was the best that could have been selected. It was in the centre of that part of the country which was best known, and where practically all the Europeans in the colony were to be found, as well as the Maori with whom the principal negotiations were being carried on. It had a good harbour and seemed best suited for any sea trade that might then be developed. Indeed, at the time of the annexation of New Zealand, comparatively little was known of other parts of the islands. Every European settlement up to that time, all trade, and practically all visits to the islands had been confined to the northern parts. The central offices of the various government departments were naturally established in Auckland, a town at almost one end of the islands, over which administration was just commencing. It was perfectly obvious that as colonization proceeded and as people began to settle in various places throughout the length and breadth of New Zealand, some more central position must be selected as the seat of government. After considerable discussion, one might almost say wrangling, the legislature decided that some position in Cook's Straits must be, in the interests of all concerned, chosen for the seat of government. An impartial committee, composed of high officials from three of the Australian colonies, was appointed to select the place, and decided upon Wellington.

It seems almost impossible to believe nowadays that the committee could have hesitated about coming to a

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

decision. Wellington not only has the natural advantage of a fine harbour, but is situated in the best position as a distributing centre, having easy access at all times for vessels, not only from all dominion ports, but from every part of the world.

In 1865 the seat of government was removed to what was then only a small town but which has since developed into a large city situated on the north side of Cook's Straits. In Wellington all government departments took up their home for that year, and there they have kept on growing from the very few that were necessary in the old days to what have become requisite for administration at the present time.

In the early days the offices of the various departments were scattered about Wellington wherever housing-room could be found.

In 1870, however, a public works policy was initiated. This embraced the control of almost everything that tended to the material development of the country, such as immigration, roads, bridges, telegraphs, railways, water-supply, lighthouses, goldfields, and purchase of native lands. To this was added, in later years, the construction of harbour defences and the exploitation of tourist and health resorts.

During the sixteen years that followed the initiation of a public works policy the net expenditure amounted to £23,250,000 ; since then, that is up to the 31st March, 1908, it has increased by £23,500,000 ; the net expenditure during the last financial year embraced within this period being £1,909,686.

From this policy arose the necessity of creating departments for carrying it out and enlarging the functions of administration. Centralization became an absolute requirement. The result was the concentration of the government offices in what was said at the time to be the largest wooden building in the world.

A GREAT DEVELOPMENT

Even that building, however, has not been sufficiently large to hold all the offices and staffs now necessary.

By way of preface, it may be said that in New Zealand almost everything is controlled by the Government. The Government departments are consequently very numerous.

To give an account of all the departments, and the work of administration performed by each of them, would be of little general interest. Suffice it to say, that almost everything affecting the advancement of the interests of the dominion and the well-being of its citizens is dealt with comprehensively by one of the many departments.

The duties of administration are widespread. Under the departments of land and survey is to be found a board for dealing with the preservation of scenery, and a State forest branch with a chief forester, as well as trained experts in charge of the State nurseries.

In the agricultural department, which only came into existence some twenty years ago, there has been an extraordinary development. It would seem as if there could be no further extension of its varied duties. There is a veterinary division with its chief veterinarian and pathologist aided by a qualified staff. There are meat inspectors and laboratories; a dairy division with its commissioner, its instructors, and its produce graders; a biological and horticultural division with a biologist; a fruit-preserving expert; a bee expert, pomologists, and inspectors of orchards as well as of imported fruits; a poultry division with its experts, and its graders; a fibre division with its experts, graders, and instructors; a viticultural division; a manure-sterilizing division, and also one for dealing with live stock and the necessary experimental farms.

This large department also issues most valuable leaflets and books of instruction on every subject which can possibly be of interest to those engaged in country life.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

There are, as might be naturally expected, departments for public works, finance, taxation, agriculture, defence, education, postal and telegraphic matters, customs, justice, police, and many other subjects which must form part of the administration of any country. New Zealand having decided that it is the duty of the State to undertake the management and control of many other matters, has had to add to the list those required for dealing with the administration of land, native affairs, railways, mines, hospitals, and charitable aid, life and fire insurance, State coal mines, industries and commerce, labour, old-age pensions, and many others. For instance, there is a "Department of Tourist and Health Resorts" which spreads throughout the world all possible information as to the great beauty and grandeur of the scenery of New Zealand and the value of its spas and sanatoria. This department is charged with the development and supervision of these health resorts and with guiding and aiding the tourist and seekers after health in every possible way. It also gives to the world the most reliable information as to the excellent provision afforded by the dominion for all classes of sport.

In order to carry out this comprehensive work a large staff is necessarily required. This includes a journalist, district agents in the dominion itself, as well as in other parts of the world, engineers, medical officers, and, last but not least, a balneologist. This department has only been in existence for a very few years, but it has done much during that time to spread the knowledge of the beauty and grandeur of the scenery, and the benefit that must accrue to invalids by visiting its many health resorts.

In this New Zealand is only following the example set, especially by Switzerland and Austria, among countries in the old world, which are officially endeavouring to attract tourists.

Amongst the many departments that have been created

A PUBLIC BOON

in New Zealand there is not one which has proved its value more fully than that of the "Public Trustee." The dominion owes a debt of gratitude of no ordinary kind to Sir Julius Vogel for having established this excellent institution. The boon that this has been to all classes of the community can hardly be over-rated.

One can rarely take up a newspaper in England without seeing some case reported in which there has been considerable loss through the careless or fraudulent action of private trustees.

In New Zealand there need be no anxiety on the part of anyone either in reference to the creation of a trust, the execution of a will, the administration of a property, or the settlement of private trusts in which the parties do not agree, not to mention many other things of a like nature.

The Public Trustee has also to undertake the management and protection of the affairs of lunatics, and the administration of certain lands connected with the reserves for Maori tribes.

It would be almost impossible to mention the many and varied duties imposed upon him in connection with his important office.

The administration of the estates in connection with those members of the contingents who were killed, or died, during the Boer war affords a conspicuous example of the value of this department. It enabled all those affected to have their affairs more promptly dealt with than could otherwise have been the case, and also at much less cost.

When one remembers what a difference the death of a private trustee makes in the administration of property, one can estimate how great is the advantage of an office in which the work is carried on continuously, irrespective of any personal change.

The boon that this has been to all classes of the community can hardly be over-rated.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The extent to which advantage has been taken of this department may be judged from the following table.

ADMINISTERED BY PUBLIC TRUSTEE

	1907.		1908.	
	Number.	Value.	Number.	Value.
		£		£
Wills, trusts and private estates, including sinking funds accounts in 1907 ..	3,486	3,236,322	3,817	2,677,409
Public	790	1,353,835	901	1,388,580
Sinking Funds	—	—	54	973,946
	4,276	4,590,157	4,772	5,039,935

The capital funds of the Public Trust Office which have been invested amounted on March 31st, 1908, to £2,444,712.

Another branch of the Civil Service has also been of inestimable value to the public inasmuch it has carried out the important work of land transfer. This is made as simple as possible with great benefit to all concerned. The Act under which it came into existence was passed in 1870 as the "Land Transfer Act."

An Act passed in 1871 abolished all pensions in the Civil Service except as regarded those who were members at the time. Those entering the Service after the above-mentioned year receive certain benefits on retirement under a contributory scheme in which they bear their full share.

It is somewhat curious that when the Act granting pensions to Civil servants was passed a corresponding one was not placed on the statute-book making provision for pensions for the military forces. The Civil servants were secure in their pensions, but those who were fighting in the field in the old days and enabling them to hold their positions had no certain reward. The "Military Pensions Act" that was passed dealt only with pensions for wounds, sickness, etc., and compassionate allowances

LAND EASILY TRANSFERRED

to widows and families of those who died or were killed in the service of the dominion.

One of the principal departments of the Civil Service is that of the High Commissioner in London. Through that department proceed all the delicate transactions of the dominion government with those on this side of the world, and from it every information connected with the country can be conveniently obtained and is always most readily and promptly supplied.

For many years the Civil Service was not classified except in the case of two of its branches—the Railways and Post Office—and there was no proper and regulated scheme of superannuation.

From this want of system both the country and the service suffered.

In 1907, however, Acts were passed dealing with both these important matters to the benefit of all concerned.

It will be seen by the foregoing that the government departments are numerous and charged with the administration of almost everything that comes into the life of the citizens of the dominion. It will, moreover, be apparent from the instances quoted that when once a department is created its work is thorough and has far-reaching results.

It should also be mentioned that in the Civil Service of the dominion the necessity of doing something in aid of protecting the country has not been neglected. This may be seen from the fact that under the Education Department there is a public schools' cadet branch. Evidence of the value placed on a military training of the young is also afforded by the fact that cadets in the Civil Service are required, after arriving at the age of eighteen years to serve for three years in a volunteer corps. To ensure that this regulation is not neglected the responsibility is thrown upon all heads of departments of seeing that they join a corps and serve for the time laid down.

CHAPTER VIII

FINANCE

GENERAL government—Local governing bodies—Tables from Official Year Book.

To enter into the whole question of finance connected with the dominion would be to undertake a task not only requiring such a mastery of the subject as but few possess, but involving the dealing with so many separate accounts and transactions that one may well be excused from taking more than a cursory glance at the matter.

General taxation, which is intimately connected with finance, has been dealt with elsewhere.

1. GENERAL GOVERNMENT

By the Statement of the Minister of Finance on July 7th, 1908, it is shown that the revenue for the last financial year was £9,059,946, an increase over the previous one of £656,871. The expenditure during the same period was £8,213,965.

The following figures which are taken from the statement already alluded to will prove of interest as showing the progress of the dominion.

Year.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Excess of Revenue over expenditure.
1903-4	£7,021,386	£6,434,281	£587,105
1904-5	7,282,870	6,635,902	646,968
1905-6	7,584,359	7,122,340	462,019
1906-7	8,399,075	7,774,926	624,149
1907-8	9,055,946	8,213,965	841,981

Attention may here be drawn to the large proportion of revenue derived from customs and beer duty, viz., £3,217,538.

THE PEOPLE AND THEIR MONEY

The revenue per head of the mean population in the year 1903-4 was £8 12s. 5d., and in 1907-8 it was £9 15s. 10d.

The total revenue to which this last calculation refers includes a sum of £8,043, described in the official *Year Book* for 1908 as recoveries in respect of expenditure in previous years.

Again, quoting the same authority, a surplus is shown on the year's transactions of £850,024. Adding to this the surplus of the previous year £717,825, there follows a total surplus of £1,567,849. Out of this sum, £800,000 was transferred to the Public Works Fund. This left a balance of £716,849 on March 31st, 1908.

As regards the Public Debt of the dominion the following is taken from the Financial Statement :—

" The gross public debt on March 31st, 1907, was £64,179,040. On March 31st last it was £66,453,897, or an increase of £2,274,857.

" This may appear to be a very large increase, but so long as the policy is to acquire land for close settlement, construction of railways, roads and bridges, lending to local bodies, and making advances to settlers is approved of by Parliament, the public debt of the dominion must go on increasing, and it must not be forgotten that our assets, many of them direct interest-bearing, proportionately increase. A large portion of this increase is devoted to expenditure of a reproductive character."

The charges of the public debt for the year 1907-8 are shown to be £2,187,427.

It may be remembered here that £11,740,527 of the public debt was raised in New Zealand.

Many of the items composing the public debt are interest-bearing investments, as, for instance, " Land Settlement," " Native Land Purchases," " Lands Improvement," " Loans to Local Bodies," " New Zealand Consols," " Advances to Workers," " Bank of New Zealand Preferred Shares," and " Reserve Fund Securities."

Public works expenditure represents items of a reproductive nature, such as railways, roads, and bridges,

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

telegraphs, immigration, and many other services of a like nature.

The institution of public works induced immigration, which in its turn caused a further demand for the extension of railways, telegraphs, roads, etc., without which the settlement of the country could not proceed. The more the country became settled the greater was the reproductive power of the works executed.

2. LOCAL GOVERNING BODIES

The indebtedness on account of outstanding loans on March 31st, 1907, was £11,616,048. On the 31st March, 1897, it was £6,793,398. The increase, therefore, during that period of ten years was £4,822,650.

In addition, there was a net indebtedness on account of Government Loans of £1,647,273. Taking the same period as before this form of indebtedness has increased by £936,914.

The total revenue for the year ended March 31st, 1907, from rates, licences, rents, government, and other sources was £2,812,440. In 1897 it was £1,363,573. Again, taking a period of ten years, an increase of £1,448,867 is shown.

In addition to revenue proper, £1,227,473 was received by these bodies. The receipt of this sum is due to moneys specially raised for such operations as the construction of public works. The total receipts for the year ended March 31st, 1907, were £4,039,913, and the expenditure £3,897,515. All measures regulating the borrowing powers of local bodies are dealt with by consolidated statutes. The conditions regarding the interest and period of the loans to local bodies by the Government are as under :—

At the option of the authority concerned :—

- (a) Four and one half per cent. per year for a period of twenty-six years ; or

MUNICIPAL BORROWING POWERS

(b) Four per cent. per year for a period of twenty-two years; or

(c) Three and a half per cent. per year for a period of forty-two years.

The following tables taken from the official *Year Book* of 1908 will show the position of the local bodies as regards their net indebtedness and the annual charge.

LOANS OF LOCAL BODIES, MARCH, 1907.—NET INDEBTEDNESS AND ANNUAL CHARGE

	Amount of Debentures and Stock in Circulation.	Amount of Accrued Sinking Fund.	Net Indebtedness.	Annual Charge (excluding Exchange and Commission).		
				Interest.	Sinking Fund.	Total.
Counties ..	£ 31,678	£ 1,434	£ 30,244	£ 1,467	£ 544	£ 2,011
Boroughs ..	5,920,305	499,396	5,420,909	275,199	32,479	307,678
Town Boards ..	7,154	232	6,922	345	98	444
Road Boards ..	66,090	708	65,384	2,905	359	3,264
River Boards ..	29,870	2,255	27,615	1,439	564	2,003
Water-supply Board ..	21,200	..	21,200	1,015	250	1,265
Harbour Boards ..	4,676,551	507,004	4,169,547	225,149	25,041	250,190
Drainage Boards ..	458,200	66,449	391,751	23,518	2,191	25,709
Christchurch Tramway Board ..	405,000	2,067	402,933	17,350	2,025	19,375
Totals ..	11,616,048	1,079,483	10,536,565	548,387	63,552	611,939
Inscribed debt of local bodies under "The Government Loans to Local Bodies Act, 1896," "The Loans to Local Bodies Act, 1901," and Amendment Acts of 1902 and 1903 (including inscribed stock exchanged for debentures under "The Roads and Bridges Construction Act, 1882") ..						
..	1,647,273*	..	1,647,273*	92,396
Totals ..	13,263,321	1,079,483	12,183,838	704,335

* Repayable by annual instalments of £94,396, representing 5 per cent. per annum on £4,839,1, 4½ per cent. per annum on £1,061,156, 4 per cent. per annum on £200,404, and 3½ per cent. per annum on £976,654, the amount inscribed to 1st February, 1907. Repayments on the amount inscribed (£2,287,105, including £59,978 debentures under "The Roads and Bridges Construction Act, 1882," exchanged) would be £3,026,173. The actual repayments to date are £931,782, leaving £2,104,391 to be paid by way of interest and sinking fund, on a present indebtedness of £1,647,273.

LOANS OF LOCAL BODIES, RAISED WITHIN AND WITHOUT NEW ZEALAND.

TABLE showing the Amount of Indebtedness of Counties, Boroughs, Town, Road, River, Water-supply, Christchurch Tramway Boards, and Drainage Boards, as on the 31st March, 1907, and of Harbour Boards as on the 31st December, 1906, classified according to the Rates of Interest paid, distinguishing Loans raised in the Dominion from those raised elsewhere. (See note.)

Local Bodies.	No. Interest.	5%	3½%	4%	4½%	4½%	4½%	4½%	5%	5½%	6%	7%	Total.
<i>Loans raised in the Dominion.</i>													
Christchurch Tramway Board..	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Counties	405,000
Boroughs	31,678
Town Boards ..	85,000	1,400	350,000	55,000	3,934,405
Road Boards	1,212,144	214,860	1,505,873	74,850	12,578	18,000	29,500*	148,525	13,500†	7,154
Water-supply Board	13,900	5,000	19,750	..	3,100	66,000
Harbour Boards..	3,900	..	18,000	..	650	..	2,520	24,870
Drainage Boards	9,000	..	12,800	..	31,000	21,200
Total raised in Dominion ..	85,000	14,031	60,000	930,800	39,600	228,470	..	93,050	18,000	63,020*	149,525	38,840†	6,145,548
<i>Loans raised outside the Dominion.</i>													
Boroughs	530,000	..	307,000	..	488,300	..	35,000	565,600	60,000	1,985,900
Harbour Boards	3,600
Drainage Board..	400,000	134,000	100,000	..	1,781,100	864,500	..	3,279,600
Total raised outside Dominion..	930,000	134,000	407,000	..	2,269,400	..	35,000	1,655,100	60,000	5,470,500
<i>Total Loans raised.</i>													
Christchurch Tramway Board.	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Counties	405,000
Boroughs	31,678
Town Boards ..	85,000	1,742,144	214,860	1,672,873	74,850	12,578	18,000	64,500*	714,125	73,500†	5,980,305
Road Boards	13,900	5,000	19,750	..	3,100	7,154
Water-supply Board	3,900	..	18,000	..	650	..	2,520	66,000
Harbour Boards..	9,000	..	12,800	..	31,000	29,870
Drainage Boards	1,350,800	173,600	328,470	..	1,874,150	864,500	..	21,200
Total loans raised ..	85,000	14,031	60,000	3,116,444	731,814	2,549,193	74,850	3,055,231	18,000	98,020*	1,764,625	98,840†	11,616,048

* Including £3,000 at 5½ per cent.

† Including £1,500 at 8 per cent.

‡ Including £40 at 10 per cent.

NOTE.—Not including loans, amounting to £1,647,275, repayable by annual instalments under "The Roads and Bridges Construction Act, 1886," "The Government Loans to Local Bodies Act, 1886," and "The Loans to Local Bodies Act, 1901," and Amendment Acts.

CHAPTER IX

EDUCATION

OMISSION of religious teaching—Education on national defence—Higher education—Scholarships—Manual and technical education—Schools of Mines—Institutions.

THE educational work of New Zealand was carried out in early days by each Province on the plan that seemed best suited to local requirements. After the Provinces were abolished in 1876 it became an absolute necessity that some national system should be established. The system decided on was that of free, secular, and compulsory education in primary schools. All children between seven and fourteen years of age, unless there is proof that they are getting sufficient education elsewhere, are obliged to attend the public schools.

The subjects taught are very numerous, and seem to embrace everything that can be turned to use in after life.

The omission, however, of any form of religious teaching is a distinct blot on the system adopted by the colony for the training of its young people. Religious teaching is, however, allowed in school buildings, out of school hours, if the committee choose to give permission. The Roman Catholic children, as might be expected, take but little advantage of the education which the State affords.

Use is, however, made of the public schools by almost all other children of whatever class in life they may belong to.

In 1906, with an estimated European population of 908,726 there were 1,847 public schools open to Europeans and half-castes living among them, and the average yearly attendance was some 122,000. In the same year

BOYS TAUGHT A NATIONAL DUTY

there were 100 native schools with an average yearly attendance for the years 1905 and 1906 of about 6,800, the total estimated Maori population being 47,731.

An important point in connection with the education of the young in New Zealand should be particularly noted, it is that of preparing them for taking part in the defence of their country. The Education Act lays down that "In public schools provision shall be made for the instruction in military drill of all boys." Education Boards are also informed that it is their duty to see that all children over eight years of age are taught physical drill. The result has been that there are 280 cadet corps, with a strength of about 15,000.

The ruling body in educational matters is the Department of Education, which is presided over by a minister of the Crown who is called the Minister of Education. This department, which came into existence about thirty years ago, has made a great difference in the educational standard of the dominion. New Zealand may now be said to possess a system of national education to which there is nothing superior, if we except the blot already referred to, in any part of the British dominions. As an evidence of this it may be said that young people who receive their early education in the primary schools of the dominion have been extremely successful in open competitions for honours in the Mother Country. This shows that the ground-work of education is well laid.

Higher education is admirably provided for. There are not only secondary schools, at which higher education is given free to those who have attained the necessary qualifications, but also "District High Schools" at which educational advantages can be obtained at certain low rates. The capstone is put to these excellent arrangements by the system of examination provided by the New Zealand University.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

It should be noted that this University is not a teaching body, but has power to confer degrees on those who have availed themselves of the advanced education afforded by the colleges affiliated to it, viz. : Auckland University College, Canterbury College, Victoria College (Wellington), and Otago University. Any degree conferred by the University is by Royal Charter declared to be entitled to "rank, precedence, and consideration" throughout the British Empire as fully as if it had been conferred by any University in the United Kingdom.

With a view to encouraging higher education the granting of National Scholarships was established by Act in 1903. There are both junior and senior scholarships, the funds being provided from the dominion exchequer. The former are offered, at the rate of one for each education district, to children under fourteen years of age whose parents have an income not exceeding £250 a year. They are tenable for three years and are available for higher education under the general system of the dominion. Twenty Senior Scholarships are granted annually to those who have held Junior Scholarships, and are awarded on the result of a University qualifying examination. They can be held by persons of either sex not more than nineteen years of age.

In the case of both Junior and Senior Scholarships, those who are compelled to live away from home in order to carry out their studies receive £30 per annum in addition to the value of the scholarship and tuition fees.

The Victoria College in Wellington, was, through the instrumentality of the late Right Honourable R. Seddon, brought into a real living existence in 1897 by an Act "to promote higher education by the establishment of a college at Wellington in commemoration of the sixtieth year of the reign of Her Majesty Queen Victoria." This college is intended to meet the requirements of not only the Provincial District of Wellington but also of

HIGHER EDUCATION ENCOURAGED

Taranaki, Hawke's Bay, Nelson, Marlborough, and Westland.

It receives a grant of £4,000 a year from the Consolidated Fund, and also an endowment of 4,000 acres of land.

A Queen's Scholarship Act, passed in 1903, provided for the establishment of six junior and four senior scholarships in connection with Victoria College, and out of its funds. The conditions of tenure are the same as for National Scholarships. These have since been merged in the National Scholarships.

A half-hearted attempt was made in 1894 to establish a college in Wellington by an Act which said that there should be such an institution. No grant or endowment, however, was made and therefore nothing could be done except the election of some members to the Council. The Act of 1897 required the Council to give six scholarships each year to boys and girls under fourteen upon the results of an examination under conditions laid down by the Council.

The Auckland University College receives a grant of £4,000 under statute and has also an endowment of land amounting to about 35,000 acres. The University of Otago and Canterbury College were founded and endowed by the provincial districts in which they were respectively situated.

For the purposes of the administration of primary education the dominion is divided into thirteen districts. Each of these districts is further sub-divided into school districts, in each of which there is a school committee elected by the householders. The supreme educational authority in each district is called an Education Board, the members of which are elected every three years by the School Committees. The income of each Education Board is derived from an annual grant of £250, plus a sum sufficient to pay the salaries of teachers and pupil

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

teachers in the district, together with 11s. 3d. per annum for each child in daily average attendance at a public school. In addition to the above, the receipts from the numerous educational reserves are paid to the Boards together with varying sums for the maintenance and support of nominal or training schools, for school buildings and for technical education. The Boards also receive some income locally from rents, fees, etc.

The training of teachers occupies an important position in the educational system and is carried out in a sound and scientific manner. There is a non-residential Training College in Auckland, one in Wellington, another in Christchurch, and a fourth in Dunedin. The total annual cost of maintaining these four training colleges is about £34,000 a year. This includes the cost of teaching about 1,800 children in the practising schools wisely provided for aiding the training of teachers.

Scholarships, both junior and senior, are annually awarded by the Education Boards. They provide the principal means of entry to secondary schools for the most promising primary school pupils.

The junior scholarships are limited to children from thirteen to fourteen years of age, and are usually tenable for two years.

The senior scholarships extend the advantages of secondary education to an additional two or three years.

The value of these scholarships, judged merely from a monetary point of view, is not great. They have, however, the effect of offering widespread educational advantages.

Through the operation of granting free places in secondary schools, with a preference to scholarship-holders, each scholarship carries with it the benefit of free tuition. A lodging or travelling allowance is also given under certain circumstances. Arrangements of far-reaching effect now in force also admit pupils of fair promise to free tuition in the higher schools.

THE TEACHERS TAUGHT

It will be seen, therefore, that free tuition from the primary school to the University can be obtained by those taking advantage of the opportunities offered to them.

There were 463 Education Board Scholarships current at the end of 1906. They ranged in annual value from £40 to £1 5s.

The cost to the various Boards was £8,488.

By means of further scholarships and bursaries opportunities are afforded of free tuition at the University Colleges.

Thus from the early stages of primary education to a University degree free tuition is available to those proving themselves deserving of it.

Manual and technical education, which form such a necessary part of the training of the people of any country, occupies a prominent place in the national system of the dominion. In addition to the instruction and examinations carried out by the various controlling authorities for the dominion, the Education Department annually conducts examinations for the Board of Education, South Kensington, and for the City and Guilds of London Institute; for the former in subjects of science and art, and for the latter in technological subjects.

In the examinations held in 1906, 358 out of the 559 candidates passed in science and art, and 154 out of 236 in technological subjects. Canterbury College has a School of Engineering and Technical Science providing courses for a University degree of B.Sc. in connection with those subjects. There is also an Agricultural College in the same district, which affords opportunities of acquiring a thorough knowledge of scientific and practical agriculture. This college has a large land endowment providing an income of £1,500 a year. The experimental farm in connection with this college is worked on a highly scientific system, and is of high educational value.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Schools of Mines are established in districts where mining is actually carried on, and during their twenty-three years of existence have been of enormous assistance to those who have taken up mining and metallurgy as a study. The Government gives four scholarships annually in connection with these schools. They are tenable for three years and of the annual value of £50. The recognition of the great value of this important subject is also shown by the fact that a professional chair of mining and metallurgy is maintained in Otago University. Towards this an annual grant of £500 is made by the Government.

The school and college classes for technical education afford instruction in almost everything that can possibly enter into the life of every citizen of the country. The cost to the Government of manual and technical instruction was £63,255.

There are also eleven industrial schools, of which seven are maintained by the Government and four by private endowment assisted by certain Government grants.

There is an institute for the blind which is maintained principally by voluntary contributions. There are however four members of the Board of Trustees who are appointed by the Government, which gives a subsidy of 24s. in the pound on the amount privately subscribed. There is also a school for deaf mutes at Sumner near Christchurch.

The value of libraries as an aid to education are thoroughly realised, and subsidies are granted annually under certain conditions. Of these one is that the subsidy must have been expended in the purchase of books. Four hundred and twenty-two libraries were subsidized in the year 1906-7.

The amount spent on education out of the consolidated fund in the year ended March 31st, 1908, was £821,423, over 16s. per head of the population.

SPECIAL SCHOOLS

At the end of 1906 there were also 308 private schools, which were attended by 17,131 children. Of these private schools more than one half were Roman Catholic, with an attendance of 11,498 children.

The total number of children of European descent attending school in 1906 was 159,281, inclusive of 17,131 securing private tuition.

There were also 7,073 native children attending school.

As an instance of the advance of education in the dominion it may be mentioned that while in 1874 only 68·15 of the population could read and write the proportion now stands at 83·50.

From the foregoing remarks it will be seen that no opportunity has been neglected by the dominion of putting the secular education of the people on a sound and practical basis.

CHAPTER X

CONTROL OF THE SALE OF ALCOHOLIC LIQUORS

LOCAL option—Dominion divided into licensing districts—How voting is conducted—Local option statistics—Hours of closing licensed houses—Prohibited persons—Clubs—Method of dealing with habitual drunkards.

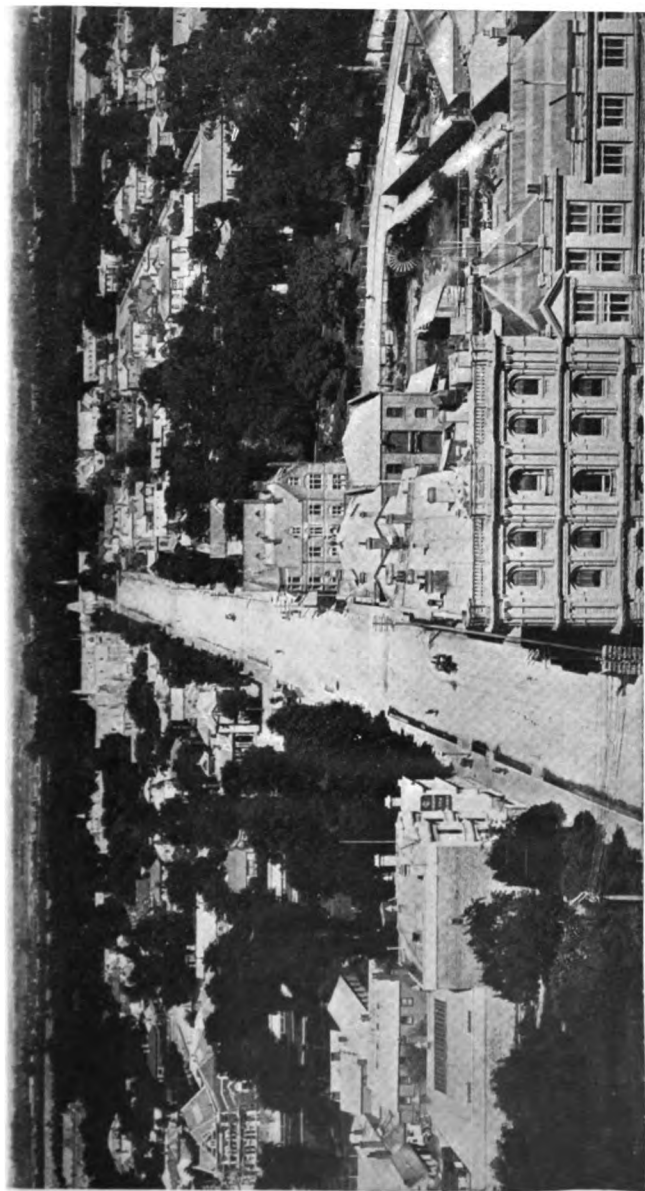
THE whole question of licensing in New Zealand rests entirely with the people. Local Option is the law of the land. It was first carried in Parliament in 1881 without trouble, because it was the wish of the people that each district in the colony should decide for itself what was best for its own circumstances. The question of compensation did not arise. Therefore no comparison is possible between New Zealand and Great Britain.

In order that the opinion of the inhabitants may be arrived at from time to time a poll is taken every three years. The dominion is divided for this purpose into a number of "licensing districts," and the poll in each of these is final as far as it is concerned. So that the matter may be simplified as much as possible, the electoral districts for the House of Representatives and the licensing districts are identical. There is an exception to this, however, in the case of the principal cities—Auckland, Wellington, Christchurch, and Dunedin; as although each city is divided into three separate electorates, yet it is for local option voting treated as a single district. The voters for the House of Representatives are the same as those for local option.

The poll on both matters is taken on the same day at the same time, and in the same polling booths.

The questions submitted in regard to local option are as follows :—

- (1) Whether the number of licences existing in the district shall continue ;



CHRISTCHURCH, CANTERBURY

HOW LOCAL OPINION IS GAUGED

(2) Whether the number shall be reduced ;

(3) Whether any licences whatever shall be granted.

The decision as to each of the above questions depends in the case of No. (1) on an absolute majority of all the voters whose votes are recorded.

In the case of No. (2) on an absolute majority of all the voters whose votes are recorded.

In the case of No. (3) on a majority of not less than three-fifths of all the voters whose votes are recorded. When the necessary majority is obtained in the case of No. (3) the other two questions are answered in the negative and no licences can be granted.

The voter may vote for one or two of these proposals but no more. If none of the proposals is carried by the prescribed majority the licences continue as they are until the next poll. The Licensing Committee (of which the Stipendiary Magistrate is ex-officio Chairman) has only limited powers in connection with the amount of reduction in the number of licences. The Act prescribes that when a reduction vote is carried, if the total number of publicans' licences does not exceed ten, it shall be reduced by at least one ; if over ten and not exceeding thirty, by at least two ; and when the total number exceeds thirty by at least three. The limits of reduction are also laid down. The Committee may not reduce the number by more than 25 per cent. in any case. Thus the limits are as follows :—

No. of Licensed Houses.	Minimum Reduction.	Maximum Reduction.
Not exceeding 10	1	2
16	2	4
20	2	5
24	2	6
28	2	7
30	2	7
32	3	8

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Forfeitures are not included when calculating the necessary reductions.

Should no licence be carried in the Wellington district then no liquor can be sold in the Parliament Buildings. None can be sold in those buildings under any circumstances on Sundays, or after 10 p.m. on week days.

LOCAL OPTION STATISTICS
FROM THE DATE OF THE ACT OF 1881

TABLE I

Population of the Dominion.	Statistics for the Year.	Total No. of Districts under Licensing Act.	Result of previous year's polling.				Consumption per head of estimated population.			
			For continuance as before.	For reduction in number.	For entire Prohibition.	No proposal carried by sufficient majority.	Convictions for Drunkenness per 1,000 of population.	Beer.* Gallons.	Wine. Gallons.	Spirits Gallons.
517,707	1882	See	note	below	w		12-22	10-523	0-351	1-153
575,226	1885	See	note	below	w		11-46	8-414	0-261	0-899
607,380	1888	See	note	below	w		9-10	7-133	0-167	0-820
634,058	1891	See	note	below	w		8-13	7-646	0-172	0-699
686,128	1894*	62	12	14	1	35	6-84	7-391	0-144	0-648
729,056	1897	62	52	0	0	10	7-21	7-790	0-146	0-663
768,278	1900	62	42	0	1	19	9-50	9-150	0-152	0-720
832,505	1903	68	31	9	4	24	10-70	9-460	0-149	0-755
908,726	1906	68	18	4	6	40	10-52	9-569	0-143	0-773
929,404	1907	10-150	0-159	0-806
	1908	68	14	8	12	34

* The first occasion on which women voted, and the first year for which records are available as to the result of the licensing poll.

LOCAL OPTION STATISTICS
FROM THE DATE OF THE ENACTMENT OF 1881

TABLE II

CONVICTIONS FOR
Drunkenness during year after Licensing Poll.

IN MAGISTRATES' COURTS.			In 1882	In 1885	In 1888	In 1891	In 1894	In 1897	In 1900	In 1903	In 1906
Balclutha	37	22	3	25	9	1	8	2	4
Clinton	15	10	17	4	0	1	2	2
Ashburton	225	248	170	142	118	47	90	58	42
Invercargill	186	213	155	96	116	92	152	194	129

DRASTIC LICENSING LAWS

At the date of the licensing poll 1905, 182,884 votes were recorded for the continuance of licences ; 151,057 for reduction, and 198,768 for no licence. These figures taken by themselves do not indicate any general opinion in favour of prohibition, but when taken in conjunction with the fact that in thirty-six out of the sixty-eight licensing districts the majority of the votes was in favour of no-licence being granted at all it does afford strong evidence in that direction.

The first of the preceding tables shows some remarkable results as to the consumption of beer, wine, and spirits per head of the population, and convictions for drunkenness per thousand of the population since 1881, which was the first year in which local option was introduced.

The second table exhibits the effect of prohibition in certain towns in districts where prohibition has been decided upon.

In compiling the first table the statistics of drunkenness and consumption of alcoholic liquor have been taken for the year following the licensing polls in order that the effect of the poll may be judged. There is one exception to this, as the effect of the poll of 1908 cannot yet be ascertained.

The towns shown in the second table are those in which the results of the convictions in the Magistrates' Courts are available.

The laws in connection with licensing generally are very comprehensive, and in some cases may be considered drastic. The following are some of the points which are especially worthy of mention.

The regular hour for closing is 10 p.m. every night except Sunday, on which day no licensed house is allowed to be open for the sale of alcoholic drinks. This latter restriction applies to Christmas day and Good Friday. They must also be closed between noon and 7 p.m. on days on which polling takes place for the House of

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Representatives and Local Option, and for Licensing Committees.

The hours may be extended under certain circumstances but in no case beyond midnight. No licensed premises are allowed to be open before six in the morning.

A widow may obtain a licence, or a married woman who is under a protection order, but no other woman at all. No woman can be employed in the sale of liquor for more than ten hours out of the twenty-four, and never after 11 p.m.

Every licensee who permits gambling on his premises is liable to a fine of £10. He is liable to the same fine if he allows any young person under eighteen to be supplied with spirituous liquors, unless such person is resident on the premises or a *bona fide* guest or lodger. He is liable to a similar penalty if he allows its sale to a prohibited person, or to one who is intoxicated. Any person on licensed premises becomes equally with the licensee liable to a similar fine if he (or she) supplies liquor to anyone coming under the above-mentioned category.

An Inspector may enter licensed premises at any time to inspect or prevent infractions of the law. Tied houses are absolutely forbidden.

The Governor can proclaim native districts as being areas in which the sale of drink is prohibited. Heavy penalties are imposed on those who endeavour to sell or introduce liquor into such districts.

A licensee may not sell liquor to any female Maori. A penalty not exceeding £5 is incurred by anyone sending a child under thirteen for liquor to a licensed house.

No new wholesale licence can be granted authorizing the sale of liquor from any place within a borough or town district in which a publican's licence does not exist.

A "prohibited person" (in the terms of the Act of 1881) is a person with regard to whom sufficient evidence has been given in open court, that he, or she, endangers or

CLUBS AND LICENCES

interrupts the peace and happiness of his, or her, family or misspends, wastes, or lessens his, or her substance, or greatly injures his, or her, health.

Any two justices presiding in open court shall forbid by writing any licensee to sell to such prohibited person any alcoholic liquor for the space of one year. This prohibition can be renewed by the justices at their discretion from year to year. Any prohibited person trying to obtain fermented or spirituous liquor from any licensee is liable to a fine of £10, or in default hard labour for three months. If a person against whom a "prohibition order" has been made enters or is found on any licensed premises (while the order is in force) he is liable to a penalty of £5.

In the case of any person who has been convicted of drunkenness three times within six months a magistrate may issue a prohibition order against him. Anyone can apply for a prohibition order against himself under the same circumstances, and the magistrate may grant the same without hearing the case in court.

Every club must have a charter and no club of less than twenty members can get one. A £5 fee has to be paid to the fund of the local body in which it is situated by every club which has a charter.

Clubs are subject to exactly the same conditions as licensed houses as regards hours of closing, sale of liquor, gambling, etc. The Club Charter is the same as a publican's licence, and the secretary occupies the same position as a licensee.

Clubs are subject to inspection by any person appointed by the Colonial Secretary for that purpose. Any club situated in a district where no licences are permitted has its charter suspended as far as the sale of liquor is concerned during the continuance of such prohibition.

No liquor is allowed to be exported from New Zealand

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

to the Cook and other islands in the group annexed in 1901, and none can be imported from anywhere except by permission of the Commissioners in the various islands. Neither can any be manufactured for sale or ordinary consumption ; but it is permitted for medicinal, religious, and other necessary purposes. The excellent provisions in connection with these islands are much to be commended as preventing the debasing conditions arising from the sale of drink which generally accompany its introduction amongst uncivilized aborigines.

Not only have the laws been devised to prevent the acquirement of drinking habits, but also to provide for the protection of the weak-willed against their special temptation. The laws take cognizance therefore of the position of the unfortunate person who has become an inebriate in the technical sense of the term, by encouraging the establishment of institutions for their treatment.

An "habitual drunkard," as defined by the Act of 1906, is one "who has been three times convicted for drunkenness within the nine months preceding." Such person, in addition to, or in lieu of, any penalty to which he, or she, has become liable, may be committed by the convicting magistrate to any "institution, society, or body of persons whose objects are the care and reclamation of persons addicted to drink and authorized by the Governor to receive and detain persons under the Habitual Drunkards Act, 1906." This order must specify the period (which must not be less than nine months) during which the person so committed shall be detained in the institution.

Anyone escaping from an institution of the kind during the currency of the order may be retaken and punished, as in the case of escape from lawful custody.

As the result of the licensing poll at the recent General Election a no-licence vote has been carried in six more districts. This brings the total up to twelve. Reduction

EVERY CLASS INCLUDED

of licences was carried in eight districts. In forty-three districts there was a majority of votes in favour of no-licence, but they were not sufficient in number to make up the three-fifths required by law.

The position there is as follows :—Continuance will prevail in forty-eight districts, reduction will be made in eight, and prohibition will exist in twelve. The number of votes recorded on the three separate questions submitted to the electors at the last five local option polls are shown hereunder :—

Votes recorded for :—

Year.	Continuance.	Reduction.	No License.
1896	139,580	94,555	98,312
1899	142,443	107,751	118,575
1902	148,449	132,240	151,524
1905	182,884	151,057	198,768
1908	186,302	161,815	209,144

The trend of all the legislation here alluded to has been with the object of making the inhabitants of New Zealand an example of sobriety to the rest of the civilized world.

In dealing with this most important subject the dominion had no past to take into consideration. It had an absolutely "clean sheet." It determined, therefore, that no half-hearted attempts should be made, but that the legislation should go into what was, in its opinion the root of the matter.

However strong the measures may appear, an admirable consistency in dealing with every class of the community is obvious throughout.

There is, however, no doubt that New Zealanders are not addicted to drinking in excess, and it would seem that there was less necessity in their country than in almost any other to introduce the prohibition question into the legislation of the dominion. As far as one can judge at present, however, the effect has not been such as

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

prohibitionists anticipated. It further appears most unfortunate for a country where the Government is spending thousands annually in advertising the attractions it offers in sport, health resorts, and scenery, that any laws should be made tending to lessen the comforts of tourists.

CHAPTER XI

RAILWAYS

RAILWAYS under government control—Facilities for travelling—Statistics.

THE establishment of railways in a new country according to a comprehensive scheme is one of the greatest aids to its settlement and development. Great agricultural, pastoral, and other industrial pursuits, the prosperity of which is vital to a country, cannot flourish without cheap and rapid means of transport.

In 1860 the first contract was entered into for the construction of any railway in New Zealand. In 1870 only forty-six miles of railway were open. On March 31st, 1908, the miles open for traffic were 2,474. The whole of the railways in the dominion are now under the Government and administered by a department under the control of the Minister for Railways, the last piece of private line in the colony having been recently acquired.

A line connecting Auckland and Wellington has just been completed, and passengers arriving at the Bluff, the southernmost port in New Zealand, can travel by train from that point to places many miles north of Auckland, with the exception of 175 miles' steamer journey between Lyttelton and Wellington.

The construction in a young country which still numbers less than a million people, within a period of thirty-eight years, of the railways necessary for making such a journey possible has been a great feat considering the character of the country. But not only has that been done, but branch lines have been pushed into almost every district where settlement has been carried on.

The history of the construction of the railway between

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

the east and west coasts of the South Island is somewhat interesting. It was originally undertaken by a private company formed in England, but after some years it was taken over by the Government for reasons unnecessary to enter into. Many enquiries had previously been made by the Government as to the engineering difficulties to be encountered ; also as to the feasibility of its construction and working on a remunerative basis ; but the reports did not appear to justify the colony in undertaking the work.

The political pressure exerted was however too strong to allow the Government to disregard the matter, and the result was that sufficient inducements were offered to enable the work to be undertaken by private enterprise.

There is no doubt that the increased facilities to be obtained by connecting country districts and shipping ports will develop coal mining, saw milling and other industries on both coasts to the great general advantage of the dominion. Whether the railway connection between the two coasts, taken by itself, will ever lead to a remunerative result, seems extremely doubtful. The principle on which the railways were constructed was that of advancing settlement and consequently the opening up of new country ; the cheapening of transit, and generally of increasing the productiveness of the colony by establishing good means of communication between the country districts and the various shipping ports.

To some it may seem curious that the location of the railways was in the first instance confined mainly to the coastline where the competition of water carriage would probably act as a deterrent to their success. The reason for this having been done will however become apparent when it is realized that in a new country the earliest arrivals naturally settle down on the land most accessible, and nearest to their only line of communication with the outer world—the ocean. As these settlements spread

A GENERAL RAILWAY SCHEME

the natural tendency is still to push the outposts of civilization along the coasts and thus keep up a regular line of communication between these various points and shipping ports. This being the case it was evidently necessary that railway communication should be provided in the first instance between one settlement and another, if profitable returns from the expenditure were to be quickly obtained.

As time went on it became not only practicable but it was politic to make lateral branches from the main lines.

The following table illustrates the effect of what railway development has done for the dominion during the last fifteen years.

NO. OF PASSENGERS AND AMOUNT OF PRODUCE AND LIVE STOCK CARRIED.

During the Year.	No. of Miles open	No. of Passengers, exclusive of Season Ticket Holders.	Season Tickets issued.	Wool Tons.	Timber Tons.	Grain Tons.	Minerals Tons.	Horses and Cattle.	Sheep and Pigs.
1892-93	1,886	3,759,044	16,504	96,842	169,910	523,637	884,031	46,590	1,359,866
1897-98	2,055	4,672,264	48,660	103,055	313,073	427,448	1,048,868	54,871	2,399,379
1902-03	2,291	7,575,390	118,431	116,309	436,008	718,376	1,604,426	115,198	3,883,177
1907-08	2,474	9,756,716	185,174	120,593	616,892	739,568	2,319,913	169,174	4,719,997

It will be seen from the foregoing table what an advantage to the dominion has been the rapid extension of the railways.

The cost to the country of producing this valuable asset has been comparatively small, for there is a return being made at the present time of three-and-one-third per cent. on the capital invested on the lines already open.

The net earnings per average mile open come to £328.

The amount already spent upon lines that are working has exceeded £24,250,000, and the capital cost per mile has been £9,849.

No comparison can be drawn between the cost of making railways in New Zealand and in England. In the latter case the construction proceeds in a country where all the natural difficulties and peculiarities are

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

well known. In New Zealand on the other hand it has to be carried out in a land where everything is in its virgin state, and where the engineering difficulties are greatly enhanced owing to the necessity of proceeding step by step through a practically unknown country.

The completion of the railway between Wellington and Auckland, supplementing the long established line between Lyttelton and the Bluff, has done much towards attaining the objects aimed at in the original scheme.

In the South Island progress was comparatively easy. Although engineering difficulties existed there was no native question. In the North Island progress could not be so rapid because, although the native question was at an end as regards a considerable area, there remained a district to be traversed where it still existed. Friendly relations which had by degrees been established between the two races gradually bore fruit and finally led to the entire disappearance of that obstacle. Thus it became possible, by the Maoris realizing the great advantages of complete union with the Europeans, to carry out the scheme in its entirety.

As an instance of how thoroughly the scheme has been carried out it may be noted that a traveller can now start from the southernmost port of the dominion at seven in the morning of one day, and arrive at Auckland in the North Island at the same hour on the next day but one, thus completing in forty-eight hours a journey of 995 miles, of which, as already stated, 175 are by steamer.

CHAPTER XII

OLD AGE PENSIONS

How the Old Age Pensions Act is administered—Who are and who are not eligible for pensions.

AN interesting event in the life of New Zealand and one which has caused considerable attention to be drawn to provision for the maintenance of the aged poor in comfort was that of placing an Old Age Pensions Act on the statute book.

A Bill to that effect was introduced into the House of Representatives by the late Premier in 1896, but did not meet with the approval of Parliament. In the following year a Bill with the same object was again introduced, but although it was passed in the House of Representatives it met with rejection in the Legislative Council. In 1898 both houses approved of the measure and it became law.

The Act has been amended from time to time and is, for the present, finally dealt with in a Consolidated Act of 1908.

It would be imagined that in a country such as New Zealand where a high rate of wages generally prevails, legislation of this nature was required less than elsewhere. Many are of opinion that such is the case. It must however be borne in mind that there is always a certain section of the people who from one cause or another have not been so successful as some of their fellow-citizens. They may have saved a certain amount but not sufficient to enable them to spend the later years of their lives in the comfort generally experienced by the mass of the people.

The Act of 1898 provided for a pension of £18 per annum without contribution from those benefited. An

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

amending Act of 1905 increased this pension to £26 per annum.

The Act is administered by a Registrar at Headquarters under the control of the Minister of Finance. Under the Registrar are seventy-five deputies, one in each district into which the colony is divided. In districts other than the chief centres of population the work of the deputies is carried out by the clerks of the Stipendiary Magistrates' Courts. The Stipendiary Magistrates investigate all claims and have the power of granting or refusing the pensions.

The pensions are available to all residents in the dominion except :—

- (a) Maori who receive votes of money other than pensions granted under an Act of 1863.
- (b) Aliens.
- (c) Naturalized subjects who have not been naturalized one year.
- (d) Chinese or other Asiatics whether naturalized or not.

To enable an applicant to qualify for a pension he must :—

- (1) Have reached sixty-five years of age.
- (2) Have resided continuously in New Zealand for twenty-five years.

Note.—Four years' absence are allowed to an applicant who was not out of the country during the twelve months immediately preceding the day on which the original Act was passed and where his total actual residence is not less than twenty-five years.

- (3) Not during the past twelve years have been imprisoned for four months, or on four occasions for an offence punishable by twelve months' imprisonment.
- (4) Not during the past twenty-five years have been imprisoned for five years for any offence.
- (5) Not during the past twelve years have deserted his wife and children.

HELP FOR OLD WORKERS

- (6) Have lived a sober and reputable life during the past five years.
- (7) Not have a yearly income exceeding £60.
- (8) Not have accumulated property of a net value exceeding £260.
- (9) Not have deprived himself of property or income to qualify himself for a pension.

Every applicant has to fill in certain forms to enable his statement to be verified. These forms embrace enquiries of banks, insurance companies, etc., and of the police.

A Stipendiary magistrate may hear all cases in camera.

The full pension can be reduced by £1 for every £10 of net accumulated property. The limit of income for a married couple (including pension) is £90. An equal distribution between husband and wife of all property owned by either or both is provided for in the Act.

On March 31st, 1908, 13,569 persons were receiving pensions, the total amount paid being £325,199.

CHAPTER XIII

LABOUR AND THE LABOUR LAWS

LABOUR laws introduced by Progressive ministry—Duties of Labour Department—Factories Act—Holidays—Shops and Offices Act—Wages Protection Act—Workmen's Wages Act—Public Contracts Act—Contractors and Workmen's Liens Act—Coal Mines Act—Mining Acts Compilation Act—Workers' Dwelling Acts—Government Advances to Workers' Act—Strikes and lock-outs.

THE legislation known as the "Labour Laws" of New Zealand began on the advent to power in 1891 of what has been called the Progressive Ministry. Indeed it may be called a continuous Ministry as it has occupied the Government benches for a period of only two years, less than that which earned a similar name for its predecessors.

Over forty laws on what is practically the protection of labour have been passed. The ramification of these laws is enormous, and the matters dealt with appear in certain cases to be quite beyond the reasonable requirements of those workers in whose interest they are made. The position however was this. The party which came into power in 1891 was bound to take into consideration the views of those who had returned them and to do as much as they could to satisfy them.

It was moreover perfectly justifiable that in a new country, the industrial life of which was practically only then assuming large proportions, those responsible for its government should particularly turn their attention to the position occupied by labour.

Some members of the Government had seen the sad condition of the manual workers in the mother country—indeed had been personally affected by the condition of labour there.

THE WORKING MAN'S PROTECTION

It was therefore only natural that a government influenced by these considerations should say, "We will not in this country allow such a condition of affairs to arise. We will now while we have the power make laws that will absolutely prevent old world abuses from being repeated in this country. We will make the condition of our manual workers such that they can live in comfort, and be kept free from any risk of unfair treatment at the hands of their employers.

As has been shown already, the "labour laws" are the outcome of the policy of the 1891 Administration to legislate principally for the protection of what are called the working classes, by which they really meant only those who are manual workers.

There is no doubt that much of the legislation was justified, has led to a condition of affairs affecting that particular branch of the workers which has made them practically independent, and which can never be materially altered so as to be seriously injurious to their interests.

Before going further one cannot but express regret at this restrictive use of the term "working classes." It has caused a feeling that "class legislation" was being introduced. For that feeling there is some reason. There is scarcely a political speech made by men of the party now in power, without allusions to the great benefits the working classes have derived from the legislation since 1891. Such allusions are a direct appeal to one section of the people to return to power a government pledged to advance the interests of that particular section. It must not be assumed, moreover, that those who have opposed some of the details of this legislation are not equally anxious for the welfare of the country and necessarily therefore for the happiness and comfort of the manual workers.

Whatever may be said as regards the introduction of

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

the labour laws, they have at all events had one beneficial effect, viz., that of spreading a knowledge of sanitation, and therefore attracting greater attention than heretofore by everyone to subjects of the most vital importance to the whole community.

All the Acts in connection with Labour are administered by a State-department, presided over by a Minister of Labour. The Secretary for Labour is the officer entrusted with the detail working of the department, as well as being the pivot round which everything turns in connection with the carrying out of the entire scheme. The duties of the Labour Department are laid down under an Act of 1903, although that Department existed many years previously to that date. They are stated to be as follows :—

- (1) To administer the labour laws of New Zealand.
- (2) To obtain and disseminate knowledge on all matters connected with the industrial occupations of the people with a view to improving the relations between employers and workers.
- (3) To collect and publish reliable information connected with the industries of the dominion and the rate of wages. Great powers are given to the officers of the department to enable them to procure the necessary information.

The Secretary for Labour is also Registrar of Industrial Unions under the Act known as the "Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act."

The department also watches the labour market and finds employment through its widely distributed agencies for a large number of people. According to the latest return, employment was found during the year ended March 31st, 1908, for 6,300 men, who had 4,413 persons dependent upon them. The total number of unemployed in 1906, the latest year for which figures are available, is shown as 9,561. The average number of men who

THE DEPARTMENT ON THE WATCH

were employed by the Government during the year 1907-8 on various public works was 5,132.

With reference to the above it will be of interest to state that since about the year 1890 the great bulk of Government railway and road works, as well as much building, have been carried out under a co-operative system. The object of co-operative labour on Public Works is obviously to let out work direct to the workmen and thus enable them to earn wages which they are certain to receive.

To the Government the advantage accrues of its having complete control over expenditure on any work. Under the usual system contracts once let were bound to continue in force unless the Government was prepared to pay compensation. The latter might possibly assume alarming proportions. Now they can continue or discontinue a work, or allow it to proceed at such a rate of time and expenditure as may be found convenient. It also finds the materials and thus is able to ensure their being of the best class. The works are carried out under the direct supervision of the Government engineers and other public officials.

The rules of employment are that those not previously employed are taken on before those who have already had employment; men resident in the neighbourhood of the works are chosen in preference to those non-resident; married men get the preference over those who are single.

"The Factories Act" is one which affects the largest number of manual workers, and is extremely comprehensive.

A factory means a place where two or more people are engaged in manufacturing articles for sale. All bake-houses, all laundries, and all places wherein Asiatics are employed are also factories, even where only one person is engaged. Every factory must be registered, and the

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

owner of every unregistered factory is liable to a fine of £5 for every day it remains unregistered.

The hours of occupation for both males and females are very strictly regulated. A male worker over sixteen years of age may not be employed for more than forty-eight hours in one week ; for more than eight hours and three-quarters in any one day, nor for more than five hours consecutively without an interval of at least three-quarters of an hour for a meal. If working hours are extended beyond these limits, then every person so employed must be paid overtime at not less than one-fourth as much again as the ordinary rate.

Those whose ordinary wages do not exceed 10s. per week must be paid overtime at not less than 6d. an hour ; and for those whose wages exceed 10s. a week a minimum rate of 9d. an hour is fixed. Special provisions for women and boys are also made. They may not be employed, except in woollen mills, for more than forty-five hours, excluding meal times, in any one week, for more than eight hours and a quarter in one day, for more than four hours and a quarter continuously without an interval of at least three-quarters of an hour for a meal, and never after 1 o'clock in the afternoon of the weekly half-holiday. In woollen mills women over the age of eighteen and boys, may not be employed for more than forty-eight hours in one week, exclusive of meal times, for more than eight and three-quarters in one day, or for more than four hours and a quarter continuously without an interval of at least three-quarters of an hour for a meal. The rate of overtime payment is the same as that for men. Their overtime is restricted to three hours in one day, and two consecutive days in each week. It is also restricted to thirty days in each year. During such work they cannot be employed continuously for more than four hours without an interval of half an hour for rest and refreshment.

PROTECTION OF YOUNG WORKERS

The regulations for keeping all records of overtime worked are much of the same class as those prevailing in the United Kingdom. If no notice to work overtime has been given on the day before it is required every woman or boy living more than one mile from the factory must either receive a sufficient meal or 1s. to purchase one before commencing work.

In any factory employing more than six women or boys a proper room for meals must be provided. This room must be furnished with seats and tables, and made comfortable, to the satisfaction of an Inspector.

No girl or boy under fourteen years can be employed in a factory except in special cases authorized by an Inspector. In the Government handbook on the labour laws it is said that practically this authorization is never given. The following restrictions as to the nature of their employment are also rigidly enforced :—

- (a) No girl under fifteen can be employed in a printing office ; nor one under sixteen in making or finishing salt, bricks or tiles.
- (b) No girl under eighteen can be employed in melting and annealing glass.
- (c) No girl or boy under sixteen may be employed at dry-grinding metals or dipping matches.
- (d) No woman or boy under eighteen can be employed in any room where white lead is manufactured, or mirrors are silvered by the mercurial process.

Those under sixteen years of age cannot be employed in a factory unless the occupier holds a certificate from an Inspector as to fitness. This certificate cannot be given unless the boy or girl has passed the State School Fourth Standard or a similar educational test.

Every person employed in factories must in the first instance receive an ordinary weekly wage of not less than 5s. and this amount must be increased at the rate of not less than 3s. a week for every

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

succeeding year of employment until they are twenty years of age.

The occupier of any factory must allow every woman and every boy under eighteen years of age a whole holiday on Christmas Day, New Year's Day, and the birthday of the reigning Sovereign. A half-holiday must also be allowed on every Saturday after 1 p.m.

Wages at the same rate as for ordinary working days have to be paid for whole and half-holidays. Especial provisions are made in the Act for the prevention of one of the greatest evils to which manual workers can be subjected—"Sweating." It is said by the Secretary for labour that those provisions have almost entirely stamped it out in New Zealand. To attain this desirable end, every factory-occupier who lets out textile or shoddy material for work outside his factory must keep a record of the name and address of the person taking the work, its description, and quantity, and the amount of remuneration. If this work is to be done in a place which is not a registered factory, a label must be attached to the goods, showing by whom, and where it was made.

Every article made outside the factory which has not got a label affixed entails a fine of £1 on the occupier of the factory for which it is made. Every person who knowingly sells, or attempts to do so, such an article without the proper label, is liable to a fine of £10; and any person who wilfully removes the label before sale is liable to a fine of £20. These regulations have not put an end to sweating but have prevented goods being made up in dirty or unhealthy places, thus benefiting the general community.

Special provisions have also been made to prevent workers being induced to take work home to be finished after their ordinary day's work is ended. These are also said to have been effective. If any person does work for the factory in which he or she is employed elsewhere

SANITATION CLOSELY GUARDED

than within it, then the occupier is liable to a fine not exceeding £10, and the worker to one not exceeding £5.

In every factory where work is carried on by more than three persons on a floor above the ground floor, efficient fire escapes must be provided, and every provision is made to secure the adoption of this very necessary precaution.

Sanitation is a matter which is most fully and effectively dealt with in the provisions to that end, laid down in the New Zealand Act. Especial precautions are also taken to prevent the spread of infectious diseases through the sale and manufacture of goods under conditions inimical to the public health.

“The Shops and Offices Act” is another statute which affects the conditions of the lives of many workers. Various districts, some called “combined” and some “separate,” are constituted for the purposes of this Act. All shops, except fruiterers, confectioners, refreshment-room keepers, etc., have to be closed on one working day in each week at 1 p.m. for the remainder of the day.

The day for the half-holiday is decided as follows: In a “separate” district a special meeting of the local authority is convened in January in each year for the purpose. The Mayor or Chairman informs the Minister as to the day decided upon and he gives notice thereon through the *Government Gazette*. In a “combined” district the various local authorities appoint delegates to a conference every January. When this conference has selected a day the Minister is notified and the day is duly gazetted.

If Saturday is made a half-holiday, a butcher, a hair-dresser, a tobacconist or a photographer, may keep open on that day but must in that case close on some other afternoon.

The Minister may cause every shop in a district to be closed at a specified hour each evening on the requisition

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

of a majority of those keeping the shops if they are all British subjects, and the local authority verifies the fact of their being a majority, or he may restrict this early closing to one particular trade upon a requisition made in like manner by the shopkeepers concerned. The hours after which no shop-assistant can be employed in or about a shop are scheduled in the Act for thirteen different trades. A shop-assistant cannot be employed for more than fifty-two hours in one week, nor more than nine hours excluding meal times, in one day, except on one day in each week when they may be employed for eleven hours, excluding meal times. They cannot either be employed for more than five hours continuously without an interval of at least one hour for a meal. A shop-assistant's working hours may be extended under special circumstances for three hours a day, but not for more than thirty days in one year. Overtime must be paid for at the same rates as for workers under the Factories Act. Assistants receiving more than £200 a year cannot claim for overtime. Sitting accommodation must be provided and available for all female assistants.

Every office must be closed by 1 o'clock in the afternoon on Saturdays, and by 5 p.m. on every other working day. Exceptions to this regulation are made in the case of banks, mercantile and other like offices. Wages have to be paid to the office assistant for the statutory half holiday or any holiday. Provisions are also made for regulating the hours of work on special occasions, such as balance days, etc. The sanitation of offices is also fully dealt with. Overtime has to be paid for at a rate of not less than 9d. an hour. Those receiving wages exceeding £200 a year cannot claim for overtime. It seems curious that shop-assistants should be allowed to work longer hours than manual workers.

"The Truck Act" is one to prevent the payment in goods of any part of a worker's wages. Exceptions are

SHOP ASSISTANTS' HOURS

however made in the case of advances for the supplies of food, tools, etc., to men engaged in felling bush.

Under the "Wages Attachment Act" no order can be made attaching or charging the wages of any workman by any court, judge or magistrate, unless the wages exceed £2 per week.

A "Wages Protection Act" was also passed to guard against any deduction being made from wages for the purpose of paying premiums on accident-insurance policies. Under this Act not only does the above condition apply, but no insurance company can receive from a worker any money in regard to any policy of insurance for the purpose of indemnifying an employer against liability, or for compensation for injury to a worker by an accident.

"The Workers' Compensation for Accidents Act" is a very comprehensive one. It is based upon the principle that the cost of an accident to a workman should be borne by the business as a portion of the legitimate expenses of carrying it on. In order that too great expense may not fall suddenly on any employer a provision is made under the "Government Insurance Act" for insuring employers against the risk of having to pay compensation. In this Act under the term "worker" every person of any age or of either sex is included who is under contract with an employer as regards employment to which the Act relates whether on land, or on board a ship in New Zealand waters. All workers in the service of the Crown are included, except those in the naval or military service, for whom definite provision has been made otherwise. This Act applies to employment in any industrial, commercial or manufacturing work carried on by an employer as part of his trade or business; to mining, quarrying, engineering, building or other hazardous work carried on by an employer or on his behalf, whether as part of his business or trade or not, to agricultural labour, including

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

horticulture, forestry, etc. ; and to work carried on by the Crown or a local authority if the employment is one to which the Act would apply in the case of a private employer.

An employer is not liable if the injury to the worker does not disable him from earning full wages for at least one week, nor if an accident arises from the worker's serious and wilful misconduct. Under any other circumstances an employer is liable to pay compensation :—

- (a) When partial or total incapacity results from an accident. In this case the compensation is to be a weekly payment not exceeding 50 per cent. of the worker's average weekly earnings while at work during the preceding twelve months. This payment cannot exceed £2 per week, and the total liability of the employer cannot exceed £300. Compensation by way of a lump sum may however be made instead of by weekly payments upon the parties agreeing to the amount, or by decision of the Arbitration Court if applied to.
- (b) When death results from the injury.

In the case of one who leaves dependants wholly dependant on him the compensation cannot be less than £200 or more than £400 less any weekly payments such as have been already referred to. If the dependants are only partly dependant on the worker then the compensation is to be a reasonable sum, not exceeding £400. In the case of a worker who leaves no dependants a sum not exceeding £30 may be paid for medical and burial expenses.

There are special provisions dealing with such workers as wharf labourers, stevedores, and lumpers, and for those employed in mines, factories, house-building and ships.

There are many other Acts dealing with the protection of workers, but it is only necessary to mention a few of them.

PROMPT PAYMENT OF WAGES

"The Workmen's Wages Act" is one of importance. Under it the wages due to any workman are a first charge against any moneys due to a contractor by an employer. Any workman whose wages are unpaid for twenty-four hours after they are due can legally attach moneys payable by the employer to the contractor until they are paid. Unless there is any written agreement to the contrary all wages must be paid once a week.

"The Public Contracts Act" provides that in every contract let by the Government or any public body the contractor must pay his men the wages for overtime, holidays, etc., at the rates which are generally considered usual and fair for labour in the locality where the work is carried on.

"The Contractors and Workmen's Liens Act" entitles a person who has done any work on land, buildings or chattel to a lien on the property. This can only be exercised to a certain amount. Wages have priority of claim against other services.

The protection of workers' wages is also secured under other Acts, amongst which may be mentioned "The Bankruptcy Act" and "The Companies Act." The former gives priority of payment to wages or salaries over other debts, and the latter the same priority in the case of the winding up of a company.

"The Coal Mines Act" of 1905 says that no female, and no boy under thirteen years of age, can be employed in any capacity in or about a mine. This Act also lays down that overtime rates are to be paid to any miner working underground for more than eight hours a day. The time is to be reckoned from when the miner enters the underground workings until he leaves them.

The owner of every coal-mine has to contribute to a fund for the necessary relief of coal-miners injured at work, and for the relief of the families of coal-miners killed or injured while at work.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

"The Mining Acts Compilation Act" of 1905 and Amending Acts of later dates deal with miners other than those employed in coal-mines. In the Act of 1905 it is laid down that no female, and no male under eighteen years of age, can be employed in or about a mine. The law as to payment for overtime is the same for these miners as for those employed in coal-mines.

There are also laws for compelling the provision of proper sleeping and other accommodation for workers employed as sheep-shearers. Sleeping accommodation must be provided in the proportion of not less than 240 cubic feet for each shearer. Separate places have to be provided for Chinese.

Agricultural labourers have also in like manner to be provided with comfortable housing accommodation.

There is further an Act to provide for the due and proper construction of all scaffolding.

"The Workers' Dwellings Acts" were passed to make provision for acquiring land, and building on it houses for those engaged in labour. This measure is said to have been introduced on account of the excessive rents which workmen had to pay in the chief centres. These dwellings can only be provided for those who are really manual labourers and are landless. The rental is calculated on the cost of the dwelling.

"The Government Advances to Workers Act," 1906, enables one engaged in either manual or clerical work, and not in receipt of more than £200 per annum to borrow from the Government up to £200 to build himself a house. In 1899 an Act was passed under the title of "The Labour Day Act." This makes the second Wednesday in October in each year a public holiday to be known as Labour Day.

It will be seen from the foregoing that almost every step has been taken by the Legislature to promote the welfare of the worker under all conceivable circumstances.

AN ADVANCE MOVEMENT

It is stated in the Official *Year Book* for 1908 with reference to wages and food in the dominion :—

“That the result of the whole workings was to show that wages and prices for necessary foods had advanced at nearly equal rates in thirteen years.”

The rise in wages is found to have been at the rate of 23 per cent., and that of food at 22 per cent. The average rate of wages and price of provisions for the year 1907 as given in the official *Year Book* for 1908 will be found in Appendix III.

The Act which has been of most interest to the world at large is that which was passed in 1894 for the compulsory settlement of all disputes between employers and employed. It was interesting from the fact of its being the first that had ever been introduced to deal with the matter. From every part of the British dominions all eyes were turned to see whether it would diminish, if it did not end, the evil effects on trade of “strikes” and “lock-outs.”

The author of this most advanced piece of legislation was the late High Commissioner of New Zealand, the Hon. W. P. Reeves, the first occupant of the position of Minister of Labour. His ardent wish was to bring to pass a state of affairs in which, by establishing definite and legal adjustments between Capital and Labour, an era of industrial peace would ensue to the benefit of the whole community in the dominion.

The Act was described as one “to encourage the formation of industrial unions and associations, and to facilitate the settlement of industrial disputes by conciliation and arbitration.” It has since been legally known by the name of “The Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act.” That it would fulfil all that was hoped for by its author could not be expected. The subject was one too large to admit of settlement by one statute. The difficulties surrounding the situation are well summed up in the words of Mr. E. Tregear, the Secretary for Labour :—

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

"The necessity of continuous amendment has been thrust upon the Legislature through the principle of industrial arbitration of a judicial character being entirely unique and without statutory precedent. The law on this subject has to be kept flexible in order to meet the continual necessities of change and growth."

It was expected by the author of this measure that conciliation by means of the Courts provided for dealing with disputes in the incipient stage would prevent the necessity of frequent appeal to Arbitration by the Court of Final Settlement. This has been proved not to be the case. The Act has moreover not caused the end of strikes, but it has ameliorated the conditions under which they usually occur. It could scarcely be expected that employers would look with much favour on an Act that considerably curtailed their powers of dealing with those they employed and generally speaking had a tendency to favour the interests of the latter.

It has been said that the power of the Arbitration Court to lay down a rate of wages for a stated period has been of great benefit to the employers, as they were thus able to calculate with certainty on one fixed item connected with their business. This is perfectly true, but on the other hand workers have been able to calculate on a fixed remuneration for their labour in any trade whatever might be the state of the market for the article they produced.

The Maritime strike of 1889, which as far as New Zealand was concerned was a most unjustifiable one, led the workers to see that their position was a strong one numerically. This enabled them to realize that the power required to redress any grievance they might suffer from was now within their grasp.

The Secretary for Labour is the Registrar of Industrial Unions.

The first Act has been many times amended, and the last word for the present was said in an amending Act in October, 1908.

A MARITIME STRIKE

Industrial Unions consist of any society lawfully associated for protecting or furthering the interests of employers or workers. An industrial union must be registered. Registration takes place after compliance with certain necessary provisions as to rules, etc. A certificate of incorporation is then given. Such union can sue or be sued for the purposes of this Act. In the case of employers an industrial union must consist of not less than three persons; in the case of workers of not less than fifteen. Any council or other body whatever may be its designation representing not less than two industrial unions of either employers or workers may be registered as an "industrial association."

The decisions, etc., of the Arbitration Court apply equally in the case of unions and associations. The Secretary for Labour is the Registrar of Industrial Unions and Associations.

For purposes of administration the dominion is divided into several industrial districts. What one may call the lower courts for dealing with industrial matters are named "Councils of Conciliation." These consist of a Commissioner appointed by the Governor and one, two, or three assessors to assist him in the investigation of a dispute. These assessors are appointed on application to the Commissioner by the unions or associations involved.

Every person recommended as an assessor must be one who is, or has been, actively engaged either as employer or worker in the industry or industries affected by the dispute. Power is however given to the Commissioner to appoint one not so engaged, if he considers that by so doing the settlement of the dispute will be assisted. If a settlement can be arrived at by the Council the terms have to be set forth in an industrial agreement. If one is not arrived at, and there seems to be no probability of such being the case, then the matter goes to the Arbitration Court.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Four Commissioners are appointed for the dominion and the jurisdiction of each extends over one or more industrial districts.

The Arbitration Court is presided over by a Judge appointed by the Governor. He must be one eligible for appointment as a Judge of the Supreme Court. His position as regards tenure of office, salary, emoluments, privileges, etc., is the same as that as Judge of the Supreme Court. Provision is made for the temporary appointment of some Judge during the illness of the permanent one.

On question of law the Judge of the Arbitration Court may state a case for the opinion of the Court of Appeal.

There are two nominated members of the Arbitration Court, one recommended by the employers' unions and one by those of the workers.

Notwithstanding the aim of the original Act being to prevent either employer or employed from resorting to means other than those provided by a court of law for settling industrial disputes, strikes still took place. The workers were not obedient to the orders of the Arbitration Court.

The Amendment Act of 1908 clearly describes the meaning of both "strike" and "lock-out." A "strike" means the act of any number of workers discontinuing their employment or breaking their contracts of service when due to a combination of workers. (a) With the intention to compel an employer to agree to terms of employment or to comply with the workers' demands; (b) to cause loss or inconvenience to an employer in the conduct of his business, or with the object of instigating or helping any other strike; (c) to assist workers in the employment of any other employer to compel or induce him to agree to terms of employment or to comply with the demands of workers.

A "lock-out" means the act of an employer closing

PENALTIES ON BOTH SIDES

his place of business or suspending or discontinuing any branch of it with the object of :—

- (a) Compelling or inducing workers to agree to terms of employment or to comply with the demands of an employer ;
- (b) Causing loss or inconvenience to workers or inciting to procure a lock-out by intending to assist other employers.

An “unlawful strike” is defined as one in which workers are bound at its commencement by any industrial award or agreement affecting the industry in which such strike arises.

An “unlawful lock-out” is defined as one in which any employer is bound by any industrial award or agreement affecting the industry in which such lock-out occurs.

The penalties on parties to a strike or lock-out if at the commencement of either there existed any award or industrial agreement affecting the industry concerned.

- (a) For every worker a penalty not exceeding £10 in the case of such a strike ;
- (b) For every employer one not exceeding £500 in the case of such a lock-out.

Every person who incites or instigates an unlawful strike or lock-out, or its continuance, or assists anyone to become a party to either such a strike or lock-out, is liable, if a worker, to a penalty of £10. An industrial union or association, trade union, or employer, or anyone not a worker, is liable to a penalty not exceeding £200. Any person who makes any gift of money or other valuable for the benefit of any person, or association, connected with an unlawful strike or lock-out is considered to have aided them unless able to prove the contrary.

If the majority of members of any industrial union or association are parties to a strike or lock-out then the union or association to which they belong is considered to have been an instigator.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

There are penalties to which employers are liable if they dismiss a worker because he is an officer or member of an industrial union, has been an assessor on a Council of Conciliation or entitled to the benefit by any award.

There are also special penalties in regard to strikes or lock-outs in the specified industries which follow :—

- (a) The manufacture or supply of gas ;
- (b) The production of electricity for light or power ;
- (c) The slaughtering or supply of meat for domestic consumption ;
- (d) The supply of water to the inhabitants of a borough, or any other place ;
- (e) The supply of milk for domestic consumption ;
- (f) The sale or delivery of coal whether for domestic or industrial purposes ;
- (g) The working of any ferry, tramway, or railway used for the public carriage of goods or passengers.

Any person employed in the above industries who strikes without having given his employer, within one month of striking, not less than fourteen days' notice signed by himself, or strikes before the expiration of the notice given by him, is liable on summary conviction before a magistrate to a fine not exceeding £25.

An employer who locks out without giving similar notice to his employees is liable on summary conviction before a magistrate to a fine not exceeding £500.

The relations between Capital and Labour are of such vital importance that it has been thought well to state in considerable detail the efforts New Zealand has been making to deal with one portion of this extremely difficult problem.

CHAPTER XIV

BANKING AND WEALTH

NUMBER of banks in New Zealand—Banking legislation—Savings Banks—Value of securities, amount of deposits, etc.

At the end of the year 1907 there were five banks of issue doing business in New Zealand. Two of these, the Bank of New Zealand and the National Bank of New Zealand, are entirely New Zealand institutions.

As is only natural, the development of banking in a country which has reached a time of great prosperity has been very considerable.

In the year 1870, which marked the commencement of a distinct period in the life of the dominion, the deposits in banks of issue were £3,127,769, the assets £6,315,354, and the liabilities £3,819,670. In that year the deposits were £18 per head of the mean population. Advancing twenty years, in 1890 we find the deposits to have been £12,368,610, the assets £17,735,259, the liabilities £13,356,598. The deposits were £19·92 per head.

In 1907 the deposits amounted to £23,517,111, the assets to £26,584,239, and the liabilities to £25,334,348. The deposits in 1907 were £25·59 per head.

The ratio of advances to deposits was 132·84 per cent. in 1880, and 84·35 per cent. in 1907.

The value of bullion and coin in the banks in 1890 was £2,591,189, out of which coin represented £2,421,530. In 1907 the value of coin and bullion stood at £4,984,566, out of which coin represented £4,814,908.

In 1907 the amount of advances was £19,838,799, or £21·58 per head of the mean population.

Special banking legislation has been passed from time

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

to time, the principal part being in connection with the Bank of New Zealand.

In 1893 an Act was passed giving power to the shareholders or proprietors of any bank, by extraordinary resolution, to authorize its capital to be increased to such an amount and upon such terms as they might deem expedient. Power was also given to grant the holders of shares in the increased capital special privileges notwithstanding anything contained in the bank charter.

A Bank Note Issue Act was also passed providing that notes issued or circulated in the dominion by any bank, should be to the amount of the issue authorized, a first charge on all the assets and property of the bank which are assets for the payment of its debts and obligations in the dominion.

In 1894 an Act was passed guaranteeing out of the Consolidated Fund a special issue of shares by the Bank of New Zealand to the amount of £2,000,000 sterling. In 1895 further legislation was made in connection with the same institution.

In 1898 a Committee of the House of Representatives having inquired into the affairs of the Bank of New Zealand an Act was passed dealing with its administration. That Act provides for the Constitution of a Board of Directors consisting of six persons, four to be appointed by the Governor in Council and two to be elected by the shareholders. Strong powers are given to the Governor in Council in connection with audit.

Further legislation was made in 1903 and 1904 in connection with the affairs of the bank.

The savings banks business of the dominion is practically entirely carried out by the government through the Post Office. There are, however, five private savings banks.

THE NATION'S WEALTH

The number of post offices open for savings bank business at the end of 1907 was 563.

The total number of open accounts at the end of that year was 319,773, or one in every 2.91 of the population. In the year 1906 the number of open accounts was 298,746. The value of accounts not exceeding £20 was £212,605 in 1906, and £226,012 in 1907.

On 31st December, 1907, securities to the value of £11,575,979 were held in the name of the Postmaster-General on account of the savings banks. Of this amount £10,121,558 were invested in New Zealand Government securities, £850,895 in local bodies securities, and £543,526 in various securities.

The total amount deposited in the private savings banks at the end of 1907 was £1,036,568.

The deposits in the savings banks on December 31st, 1907, amounted to £12,825,063. The average amount to the credit of each depositor was £35 3s. 10d. The amount per head of the population, £13 15s. 11d.

Taking the total deposits of banks of issue at the end of the year to be equal to the average deposits for the four quarters and adding the deposits in both classes of savings banks a total amount is shown of £34,157,403, not including Government moneys.

The question of the wealth of the dominion may here be mentioned.

According to the official *Year Book* of 1908, which only purports to give a rough approximation of the facts as far as private wealth is concerned, the following appears to be the case.

Aggregate private wealth on December 31st, 1906, £304,654,000.

The public property, which includes Crown and all other lands not being private property as well as all public works, is estimated to have a value of £62,041,000.

To this has to be added the value of Native lands and

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

improvements, exclusive of lessees' interests, which is estimated at £9,708,000.

The total value of public property, private wealth, and native lands amounts then to £376,403,000. The private wealth represents *net* wealth, but the debt of the general government and the local authorities on account of loans raised out of the dominion must be deducted.

This debt amounts to £58,965,000.

Deducting this from the total amount of £376,403,000 there remains at the end of 1906 public and private wealth of the value of £317,438,000.

CHAPTER XV

DEFENCE

FIRST scheme mooted for defence of the Dominion—Services rendered by Sir William Jervois and Major-Genl. Shaw—Australasian Naval Defence Act—Compulsory service—Rates of pay in the Militia—Volunteers—The Defence Act Amendment Act—The Defence Council.

ALTHOUGH the Maori wars ceased in 1870, the unsettled condition of native affairs with the consequent possibility of hostilities breaking out again, necessitated the maintenance of considerable military forces. The necessary administration and control was carried out by the Defence Department, which had been created under the Minister of Defence in the early years of the employment of colonial troops.

In 1885 the defence forces consisted of the Armed Constabulary and an Auxiliary force of Volunteers. Up to that time the only defence question to which any attention had been paid was that of being ready to repress internal disorder.

War between Russia and Great Britain however then became imminent, and the colony was brought face to face with a new position, which compelled the setting up with as little delay as possible, an organization suitable for dealing with external defence also. It was necessary at once to provide some sort of defence against the attacks by sea which were sure to take place should war be declared. The question arose: "What ought we to do?" A sort of council of war, consisting of the Ministers and all those considered best able to give advice on the matter, was therefore immediately summoned. It was fortunate for the colony that the Governor at this time was Lieutenant-General Sir William Jervois, R.E., as he was

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

able from his great experience, to give the Council the very best advice as to the measures to be undertaken, and afterwards to assist the Government in carrying out what was decided upon. Not only was the advice of Sir William Jervois of inestimable value, but when it was afterwards decided that the defence of the principal harbours should be by permanent works and submarine mines, his very great knowledge of the subject enabled the Government to carry out the scheme with confidence. In fact, no greater authority on such matters could possibly have been consulted. Subsequently, the Government had the advantage of consulting Major-General H. Shaw, R.E., who had come to reside in New Zealand. The value to the dominion of this officer's services cannot be too highly estimated. They were placed unreservedly at the disposal of the Government at a time when his great knowledge of harbour defence was of supreme importance.

Some years before this time some 7-inch and 64 pr. rifled muzzle-loading guns, and four spar-torpedo boats had been obtained ; but any defence against enemies from without was not considered a contingency requiring immediate attention. Accordingly, the guns had been placed in sheds and the torpedo boats put out of sight as useless encumbrances. Now that war was very likely to commence within a few days it became necessary to bring them to light and make the best possible use of them. Land was immediately purchased, forts suitable for the guns were designed and the necessary work immediately commenced. The torpedo boats were overhauled and made ready for service as expeditiously as possible.

The Armed Constabulary was drawn upon at once to provide the officers and men necessary for artillery work. Instructors were obtained from amongst those residents in the colony who had formerly served in the Royal Artillery, and a few from within the Armed Constabulary

THE DOMINION'S HANDY MEN

itself. Training proceeded continuously. Crews for the torpedo boats were obtained from those men of the Armed Constabulary who had followed the calling of the sea.

The colony was fortunate in having such an excellent force to draw upon for the various services required at the time. The high rate of intelligence possessed by the members of the force and their capability for adapting themselves to any kind of work was now of enormous value.

Auckland was at the time considered by the Naval Authorities to be the most important harbour to be defended, and therefore energy was principally directed to making that place as secure as possible under existing circumstances. A "torpedo corps," as it was called, was also formed from officers and men then resident in the colony, but who at one time had served in the Royal Navy or Royal Engineers, together with men from the Armed Constabulary who had also been in the former branch of the Imperial Services.

A submarine minefield was designed and, mainly by the assistance rendered by the Royal Navy, the mines were laid in what was probably the first minefield in Australasian waters. Retired naval officers who were living in the colony were engaged to superintend such naval defence as was possible and to instruct the crews of the torpedo boats. Steps were also taken for preventing the coal-mines within reasonable distance of any port being utilized by the men-of-war of the probable enemy. In fact, everything that could possibly be devised for the defence of the colony with the means available was carried out as quickly as possible.

Such were the first efforts to provide external defence. Happily the maintenance of peace prevented the necessity of putting them to a test. The danger to which the colony was exposed by not being prepared in any way to defend its own shores, was however fully recognized.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The result of this was that a system of defence was established applicable to all eventualities. The measures necessary for defending the colony were commenced at once, have been continuously proceeded with, and are being carried on steadily at the present moment. The Government determined that as far as possible everything connected with defence should from the commencement be done on the most recently approved and up-to-date principles. Guns and other war material of the latest pattern were ordered. Fortifications were planned by imperial officers after the newest designs. By them also the sites considered most suitable for submarine mine-fields were selected and the stores most immediately necessary were ordered.

The main principles of the scheme of defence were that the chief towns, and consequently centres of trade of the colony should be made as secure as possible from attack ; that there should be safe anchorages in time of war at the principal ports for merchant vessels trading to, or in the colony, and last but not least, that efficiently-protected coaling stations for British men-of-war should be provided.

Such were the lines on which external defence was commenced, and on which it has been continued ever since. That alterations in the plans of defence for particular districts have been made from time to time goes without saying. That this principle was correct may be gathered from the fact that Article IX of the Agreement under the " Australasian Naval Defence Act, 1908," reads as follows—" The Imperial Government recognize the advantages to be derived from making Australasia a base for coal and supplies for the squadrons in Eastern waters."

Modifications of original designs frequently become necessary. Military science is always advancing, and the most recently acquired knowledge of the art of war renders changes imperative from time to time. In addition it may also be said that experts do not always agree.

A COMMENCEMENT MADE

However the Government did all that they possibly could to obtain the best advice, and when obtained to carry it out, as far as the circumstances of the colony permitted.

The very first thing to strike the people of any country would naturally be that what was worth having was worth preserving. This is not always the case, however, and the Government have found at times that defence expenditure is very unpopular with some of the representatives of the people in Parliament. The work, nevertheless, has gone steadily on, and the colony expended nearly four millions of its money in the twenty-two years between 1885 and 1907 in that very necessary part of State insurance—defence.

The expenditure on defence during the year 1907-8 was £197,579, and £250,000 will be required for the year 1908-9. This expenditure does not include the sum paid annually under the Australasian Naval Defence Act which amounts to £100,000.

That no time was wasted after the principle had been adopted, that defence against attacks by sea was necessary, may be gathered from the following historical summary.

At the beginning of 1885 there was no defence at all. By the end of 1889 not only had the necessary forts and other works been brought to an advanced stage of completion, but more than forty modern breech-loading and quick-firing guns had been mounted and equipped in addition to the rifled muzzle-loading guns already alluded to. The submarine minefields in Auckland and Wellington had been surveyed, mines and stores of the most recent patterns provided, and advanced preparations had been made for laying down mines in two of the best equipped minefields in the world.

While these works were proceeding, the training of men required for the working and control of the various implements of war had not been neglected, and although it could not be expected that the training of all concerned

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

had reached a state of perfection, yet remarkable progress had been made. The branches necessary for full development of the work were gradually being brought into existence. The State branch of the Defence Department, which of course existed in former times had now thrust upon it the duty of obtaining large quantities of warlike material which had hitherto been unknown to it even by name.

The aim of the Government was, as has already been said, to keep everything up to modern requirements. Prior to 1885 the military administration was carried out under various Militia and Volunteer Acts suitable to the forces employed under the defence conditions then existing. In 1886 it became necessary to provide for an entirely different state of things. The outcome was the passing of the "Defence Act, 1886," known as the principal Act until 1908, when all previous Acts were consolidated.

Under this Act the Armed Constabulary disappeared and a new force called the Permanent Militia was brought into being, the first members being taken from the military body just done away with. The Permanent Militia was divided into two branches, Artillery and Torpedo Corps. Later these became Artillery and Engineers, and were by the gracious authority of the Crown designated the "Royal New Zealand Artillery" and "Royal New Zealand Engineers." These are now, however, embraced in one corps, "The Royal New Zealand Artillery." This is the only permanent military force in the dominion.

Great consideration was given to the question of the organization and administration of the Volunteers, and regulations based on those of a similar nature for the Imperial Service were framed under the Act, and became law after receiving the authority of the Governor and Commander-in-Chief in the usual form. Under this Act also all male inhabitants of New Zealand, including

A NATIONAL FORCE

natives, between the ages of seventeen and fifty-five, resident in the country for six months, became liable for military service. The Militia was divided into three classes :—

- (a) Unmarried men between the ages of 17 and 30.
- (b) Married men between the same ages, and all unmarried men between 30 and 40.
- (c) Married men between the latter ages, and all unmarried men between 40 and 55.

Exemptions from service were necessarily made in the case of :—

- (a) Executive Councillors, Judges of the Supreme and Native Land Courts ;
- (b) Members and officers of the General Assembly ;
- (c) Secretaries and Under-Secretaries of the General Government ;
- (d) Resident Magistrates, Sheriffs, and Constables ;
- (e) Post, telegraph, and railway employees ;
- (f) Medical men and clergymen ;
- (g) Enrolled volunteers ;
- (h) Those unfit for service by reason of physical infirmity.

Power was given to the Governor to exempt by proclamation natives in any district, as might seem to be advisable. Provision was also made for protecting the interests of miners or holders of miners' rights in claims or "water-rights," when called out for service in the militia.

Under an Amendment Act of 1900 the necessary powers were given to the Governor for dividing the dominion into such military districts and sub-districts as were deemed necessary, and for the appointment of enrolment officers. Great powers are given to these officers to ensure a proper enrolment. Amongst these may be mentioned that of being able to compel all licensed public-house keepers and all lodging-house keepers, as well as owners of private

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

dwelling houses, to supply the names and ages of all adult males resident with them. The rolls must be posted in conspicuous places in each district, and if anyone liable to be enrolled is not on the list he must send notice of the omission to the enrolment officer. Penalties are enacted for refusing to give information.

By the same Amendment Act an Imperial Reserve was established for service under certain conditions. The power given to the Governor under the Act just mentioned for establishing military districts has been exercised by him. The dominion has been divided into five districts, Auckland, Wellington, Canterbury, Nelson, and Otago. These have been again divided into sub-districts which are the same as those for electoral purposes. This is a sound and simple form of sub-division, fully providing for enrolment of the militia when necessary.

The Defence Forces of the dominion, of which the Governor is Commander-in-Chief, at present consist of :—

- (1) The Royal New Zealand Artillery, the only corps now belonging to the Permanent Militia.
- (2) The Volunteers.

Either Europeans or natives may be enrolled in the Permanent Militia, and are liable for service either in, or beyond, the dominion. They may be employed also as a police force in case of any sudden or extraordinary disturbance of the peace. The Permanent Militia is properly prohibited from canvassing or taking part in any election for members of the House of Representatives. They are, however, allowed to vote at an election. A Permanent Militia man has to serve for eight years. Of this service five years must be continuous. At the end of the latter period he is enrolled in the reserve for the remaining three years, unless he prefers to remain on the active List. Reserve men are liable to be recalled at any time to active service. If the Permanent Militia is not

HOW THE SOLDIER IS PAID

on active service a member of that force is able to obtain his discharge as follows :—

- (a) During the first three years' service on a payment of £3 ;
- (b) At any time during the succeeding two years on a payment of £2 ;
- (c) After five years' service without payment.

Men so discharged are, however, put on the reserve, and are liable to be called out for active service during any of the remaining period of the eight years for which they originally enrolled. The pay of the officers of the Permanent Militia is as follows :—

Major in command, £325 with £50 house allowance.

Captains from £275 to £225 with free quarters, to £220 with £50 house allowance.

Lieutenants from £215 to £175.

The following are the rates of pay and allowance for Warrant, Non-commissioned Officers, and Rank and File of the Permanent Force :—

- (a) Regimental Sergeant-Major, 10s. per diem and £50 per annum house allowance.
- (b) Gunnery Instructor on appointment, 9s. 3d. per diem ; after three years' service, 10s. per diem.
- (c) Company Sergeant-Major and Quarter-master-Sergeant on appointment, 9s. per diem ; after three years' service, 9s. 6d., and after six years, 9s. 9d.
- (d) 2nd Class Master Gunner on appointment, 9s. 3d. per diem. After three years' service, 10s.
- (e) Sergeants on appointment, 8s. 6d. per diem ; after three years' service, 8s. 9d.
- (f) Corporals on appointment, 8s. per diem ; after three years' service, 8s. 3d.
- (g) Bombardiers on appointment, 7s. 6d. per diem ; after three years' service, 7s. 9d.
- (h) Artificers on a sliding scale rising according to service to a maximum rate of 11s. per diem.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

- (i) Rank and file, ordinary pay, 6s. per diem. This can be increased by their passing examinations for efficiency in their duties.

The highest rate of proficiency pay is 1s. per diem. There is also another or second-class rate of 6d. per diem. A further increase can be obtained by good conduct pay to be awarded at the following rates :—

After 5 years' service	3d.	per	day
" 10	"	"	6d.	"	"
" 15	"	"	9d.	"	"
" 20	"	"	1s. 0d.	"	"

It will thus be seen that a man by exercise of intelligence and application to his work can increase his pay to 7s. a day throughout his service, and that after five years' service with good conduct he can again increase it according to the scale just given, until he reaches a maximum of 8s. a day.

Lodging allowances may also be granted on the following scale if public quarters are not available :—

Warrant Officers and Staff Sergeants	..	£25	per	annum
Sergeants	£20	"	"
Rank and File	£15	"	"

There is also a rate of pay fixed for the various ranks of the Artillery when employed as instructors to the Volunteers. A comparison of these rates of pay will show that the pay of the officers is much less in proportion than that of all ranks below them.

The strength of the Permanent Militia on February 29th, 1908, was 307. It is proposed to reduce this force in the future, and to simply retain a sufficient number to act as instructors to and perform duties of specialists with the Volunteer Garrison Artillery which is now linked with it for coast defence work.

The Volunteers are composed of :—

- (a) Field and Garrison Artillery ;
- (b) Mounted Rifles ;

TRAINING THE BOYS

- (c) Infantry, including Cycle Corps ;
- (d) Field Hospital and Bearer Corps ;
- (e) A Reserve Corps.

The Reserve Corps are principally formed from Infantry and Mounted Corps who have been unable to maintain the strength laid down by the regulations for Volunteer Corps, or are not sufficiently close to lines of communication for mobilization and frequent practical instruction.

There are also as adjuncts to the Volunteer force Defence Rifle Clubs and Defence Cadets. The former, of which there are 143, receive an annual free grant of ammunition for those members who have qualified in certain simple drills and exercises laid down by regulation. They are included in the Defence Annual Musketry Course, and are under the superintendence of an officer on the staff of the Inspector-General.

The report of the latter for 1908 shows that under present conditions the Defence Rifle Clubs have not come into line with the defence forces of the dominion. They have devoted their energies merely to shooting. This, he points out, although an excellent foundation for the training of a soldier, is in itself not sufficient to fit him for taking any real part in the defence of his country.

Defence Cadets, of whom there are fifty-nine corps, are boys, principally from school, who are voluntarily learning drill, musketry, and other military training, so as to fit themselves in early life for future service to the dominion in the active force. The number of cadets undergoing training in the same year was 3,158.

The annual capitation granted to each efficient garrison and field artillery and infantry volunteer is £2 10s.

To each efficient mounted volunteer, £3 10s.

To each efficient cadet, 12s. 6d.

To each efficient reservist, 5s.

Any Volunteer after one year's service may quit the corps in which he is enrolled upon giving three months'

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

notice. Should he however be compelled to leave the district in which his corps is serving a fortnight's notice is sufficient. The Commissioned company officers are elected by two-thirds or more of the members of each corps at a meeting convened by advertisement. They then receive acting appointments, until they have passed the examinations laid down by regulations for the various ranks, after which they receive commissions. Election of officers is not suitable to any form of military service.

Cliques can be, and are, formed amongst members of corps to advocate the claims of particular candidates, and a man may be elected on account of his being a good fellow, instead of his suitability for the position of an officer bearing His Majesty's commission.

The maximum rate of pay of officers commanding districts is £400 per annum. They also receive free quarters or a house allowance of £50.

The pay of the officers of the instructional staff ranges from £275 to £200 per annum with house allowances varying from £50 to £25.

The pay of the non-commissioned officers ranges from £180 to £150 per annum. As was shown in connection with the Permanent Militia, so here it will be seen that the pay of the officers is much less in proportion than that of the non-commissioned officers.

In 1886 the forces were armed with the old Snider rifles and carbines. Following the changes which took place in the Imperial Service as regards the matter, the Snider was replaced by the Martini-Henry, which in turn was succeeded by the Martini-Enfield and by the Lee-Enfield, with which magazine rifle the forces are now all armed.

The provision of ammunition for these arms was also a matter requiring constant change. Much was procured from the War Office, but this had also to be augmented by supplies from private firms. The difficulties attending the provision and maintenance of what was required were

A USEFUL COMPANY

much lessened by the establishment in Auckland of the Colonial Ammunition Company. This company, under contracts with the Government, has for some years supplied by far the greater part of the ammunition required. An officer is stationed in Auckland for testing supplies under contract. The company has kept itself well up-to-date in all machinery and appliances, and an excellent quality of output has been maintained. The fact of being able to obtain large supplies of small arm ammunition of a good quality in the dominion itself has been and will continue to be an enormous aid to its defence.

It would be impossible to describe all that has been done in the past and is still being carried out, to improve the defence of the dominion, but sufficient has been said to show that no efforts towards that end have been spared.

The total strength of the forces of the dominion, as shown in the Report of the Council for the year ending on the 29th February, 1908, was as follows:—

Headquarters and district staff	64
Royal New Zealand Artillery	307
Volunteers	12,834
Rifle Clubs	3,369
Defence Cadets	3,158
Reserve Corps	215
Total			<u>19,947</u>

This total shows that of the male population between the ages of twenty-one and fifty-five there is one individual out of every twenty-one serving in the Defence Forces of the dominion.

The following point in connection with the defence must however be mentioned.

The Imperial Government having decided to dispense with submarine mines as a means of defence the dominion has done likewise. The desirability of following the Imperial defence measures as closely as possible is

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

certainly commendable. Different conditions are, however, to be found in the oversea dominions and the Mother Country. These sometimes affect the measures taken. This presumably has been fully considered on the occasion here referred to, but the defence will be much weakened unless replacement of the mines by other submarine methods has been provided for.

Up to 1906 the Defence Department was administered, under the Minister of Defence, by the Under-Secretary who was one of the chief officials of the General Government. The occupant of this office was not necessarily a soldier, although he frequently was, or had been one. In 1890 it appeared to the government of the day that although there was an officer appointed to inspect and report on the condition and efficiency of the forces it was desirable that a Commander of the Forces should be obtained. The officer first appointed was a captain in the Royal Artillery selected by the Imperial authorities, and he was succeeded in due course by a Major from the same arm of the service. He in turn was followed by an officer who had seen considerable service in the cavalry both in India and South Africa.

This dual form of administration was not a success, as there were too many occasions on which divided authority interfered with a proper conduct of business. The officers first appointed could not understand the position. They were not able to see that the Defence Department was a branch of the civil service of the country, and was, as in the case of all others, under the control of a minister of the Crown, administered through its official head in conformity with the usages of all branches of that service. They assumed that the command of the forces gave them control over everything in the department. Any division between its civil and military branches seemed to them impossible, and a great deal of confusion necessarily resulted. The officer last

CHANGE IN ADMINISTRATION

appointed to the office of Commander of the Forces had had considerable experience of command in the Imperial service, and during the South African war a large number of New Zealand troops had served under him. He did everything in his power to prevent any possible friction arising between the civil and military authorities of the department.

"The Defence Act Amendment Act" of 1906 completely ended the foregoing system. By that Act a Defence Council was created under the Presidency of the Minister of Defence. The power given by the Act of 1900 to the Governor to appoint a Commander of the Forces is, however, still retained.

The Council consists, in addition to the President, of five members as follows:—

- (a) Chief of the General Staff: First Military Member.
- (b) Adjutant and Quarter-master-General: Second Military Member.
- (c) Inspector-General: Third Military Member.
- (d) Finance Member.
- (e) Secretary.

Four of these (a) (c) (d) and (e) are Colonels in the New Zealand Militia, and the fifth (b) is an officer of the British regular army.

The pay of the members of the Council of Defence, with the exception of the Finance member, is £500 per annum and a house allowance of £75. The Finance member, who is also Secretary to the Treasury, receives £100 per annum and no house allowance. The pay of the Headquarters staff ranges from £500 per annum in the case of the Director of Engineer services with £50 house allowance, to £215 per annum in the case of the Inspector-General's staff officer whose house allowance is £25 per annum.

It is unnecessary to describe their various duties; suffice it to say that they are laid down on the lines recommended by the Imperial Defence Committee for

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

the guidance of the various colonies. It may be well, however, to quote from the Report of the Defence Council for 1907 as to what its duties are :—

“ The Council of Defence is an advisory body to the Honorable the Minister of Defence on all matters connected with defence. It also prepares and puts before the Minister such subjects as may be necessary for his consideration and decision. The Government and Parliament declare the policy and vote the supplies, the Council advising and carrying out that policy to the best advantage on the supply granted.”

The institution of the Defence Council is the best thing that has been done in the dominion towards obtaining good administration of everything connected with its forces.

The Report of the Defence Council for 1907 gives an account of its first meeting, January 7th, of that year, and of the decisions arrived at on various subjects. Extracts from some of these will prove of interest. As regards “Policy” the following appears in the Report :—

“ Taking all circumstances into consideration, it was decided that the policy of defence should, for the present, continue purely voluntary.”

After some remarks as to how administration would be carried out to ensure efficiency, etc., the subject is closed with these words :—

“ Should the Volunteer Force not be maintained or brought up to an efficient state, volunteering has had its last chance. If the general public are in earnest as to defence, they must themselves assist and ensure that under the voluntary system sufficient enlistment is made and that once men are enlisted they attend regularly. The alternative is a system of universal or compulsory training whereby the burden of service in the defence forces will be more evenly distributed.”

Apparently the Voluntary system did not proceed at a satisfactory rate, as not so very long after the Defence Council had thus formally given expression to its defined policy, it is reported that it was found necessary to submit to the Minister for his approval that the first-class of the

THE CITIZENS' DUTY

Militia should be called out. It was not approved of by the Premier. This was probably due to his desire to afford a little more time to the people of the colony to consider whether they would avail themselves of the "last chance." It should, however, be mentioned—to make the matter perfectly clear—that the Force required is definitely fixed for service in defence of the dominion, that is, home defence, and that contingents for oversea service are to be raised and equipped as a special force.

The matter may be summed up as follows :—The dominion *must* be defended. It will be done by voluntary means if possible, but if the country does not rise to that, then it must be done compulsorily.

There has been much discussion by public men and in the Press on this question, and undoubtedly the general opinion is in favour of universal training for the defence of the dominion. Nothing could be clearer and nothing could be better than thus bringing forcibly before the citizens of any country that the first duty of its manhood is to fight for it when the need arises.

One other point in the Report of 1907 deserves special mention. It is stated that :—

"The scheme of harbour defence is in accordance with the recommendation of the Imperial Defence Committee, and the naval policy of the Empire."

No better proof than this could be given that the original scheme of external defence—defence of the principal ports—was based on proper lines, and in accordance with the only policy to secure the very existence of the Empire—that of Naval Defence.

There is one item in the report alluded to above which shows that special significance has been attached to the thorough training of the officers of the Royal New Zealand Artillery, and Royal New Zealand Engineers. These corps as already stated have now been merged into one. The item referred to is that the officers of these two

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

branches have all undergone training in England. This is a step in the right direction. The aim of the dominion should be that no military positions should be too high to be held by officers of its own force who have been thoroughly trained, and shown themselves fitted for the most important military duties.

The report of the Council of Defence for 1908 shows that the education of the officers is a matter occupying their earnest attention, as in it they recommend that a school of instruction shall be established on the lines of the one now in existence in Kingston, Canada.

The same report demonstrates progress in the organisation requisite to enable all branches of the forces to be used to the greatest advantage in the defence of the dominion.

CHAPTER XVI

LAW AND JUDICIAL

THE laws under which everyone lives in New Zealand are the laws of England as existing on January 14th, 1840, so far as they are applicable to the circumstances of the colony, and so far as since that date they have been modified by statutes made by the legislature of New Zealand.

What these modifications amount to may be realized by the fact that no less than 4,310 Acts and Ordinances have been made. Certainly about half of this legislation consists of local and personal Acts.

In 1908 an immense mass of it was consolidated, but even now the statutory law of New Zealand is a formidable collection. By the year 1895 the accumulation became so unwieldy that a Commission was appointed to carry out the details of consolidation.

In 1908 the first instalment of the work of the Commission was issued in five volumes consisting of 208 Consolidated Acts, and a short Act was passed by the Dominion Parliament repealing the numerous Acts about to be superseded and replacing them by consolidated Acts.

Many Acts will have to remain in operation till the consolidation has been completed.

It must not be forgotten that besides the legislation by the central government there were still left in operation between the years 1852 and 1876 some of the laws made by the Parliaments of the Provinces before the latter were abolished. It was not until 1892 that the bulk of the Ordinances made by those Provinces was done away with by the central government. Even to this day a

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

residue of some 200 still have full legal effect within the boundaries of the defunct Provinces. These legislative survivals only refer, however, to such minor matters as drainage, gas, water, and local cemeteries.

At the present day, therefore, in New Zealand, to ascertain the law as to some subject not covered by colonial statutes it is necessary to turn to some old English statutes, to ascertain what has been the custom that has governed a similar point in England as far back as even the thirteenth century.

Justice is administered by a system copied from that of England. There is a Supreme Court which has within the dominion a jurisdiction similar to that which the High Court of Justice has in England.

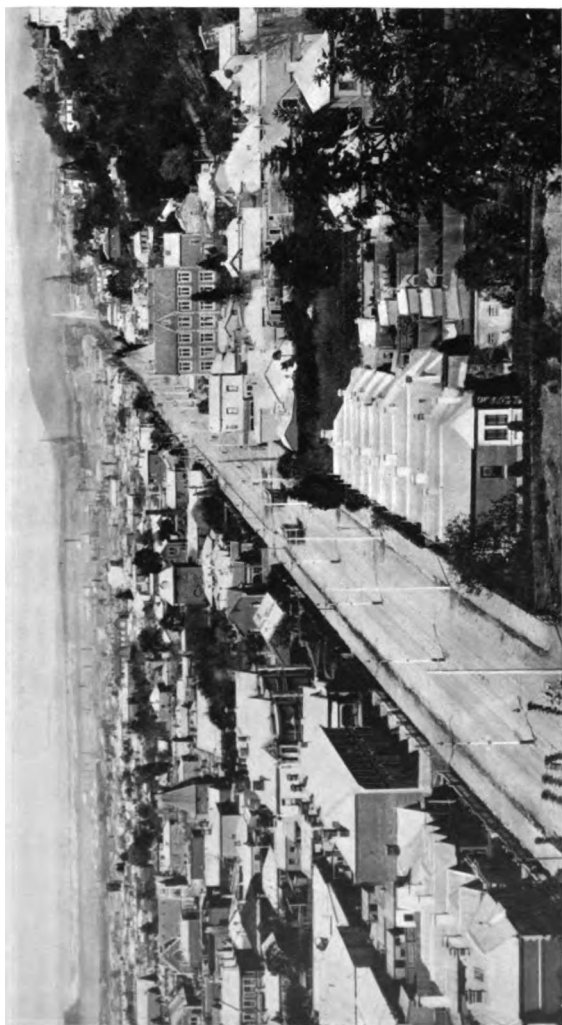
The Supreme Court was first created in the year 1841 by an Ordinance of the first Governor of the Colony, the powers of the court being defined in that Ordinance.

In 1882 a code of civil procedure in the Supreme Court was established to cover any possible omissions from former Acts. It was given all judicial jurisdiction which may be necessary to administer the laws of the colony.

There are six judges of the Supreme Court, one being Chief Justice and the other five having districts assigned to them, viz., two at Wellington, and one each at Auckland, Christchurch, and Dunedin.

A Court of Appeal is formed which consists of two or more Judges of the Supreme Court sitting together, and the decisions of the Court of Appeal are final as regards tribunals of the dominion. There is appeal in criminal cases as well as in civil cases. The Court of Appeal may give leave to either party to appeal to the Privy Council.

Next in degree to the Supreme Court come the District Courts with civil jurisdiction up to £500 and criminal jurisdiction as to felonies and indictable misdemeanours except treason, murder, or any felony punishable with more than seven years' penal servitude, and certain other



DUNEDIN, LOOKING SOUTH

THE DOMINION'S LAW-GIVERS

offences set out in the Act which created these Courts. Appeals in both civil and criminal cases from the District Court to the Supreme Court are provided for.

Next below the District Courts come those of the Stipendiary Magistrates, with three degrees of jurisdiction : the lowest up to £100, the next up to £200, and the next the special jurisdiction including partnership accounts, actions for libel or slander, bequests involving sums up to £200, and injunctions concerning personal property up to £500, or land up to a rent value of £210. Appeal from these courts is to the Supreme Court.

Courts to provide for the special circumstances of mining districts are called "Wardens' Courts" with elaborate provisions for the administration of justice with appeal to the District Court.

CHAPTER XVII

POLICE

PRIOR to 1886 the police duties of the dominion were carried out by the Armed Constabulary. In that year a police force was established by Act, and is administered through one of the government departments—the Police Department. At the head of the force and of the department is the Commissioner, an officer appointed under the Act referred to. Under the conditions prevailing in the dominion this is a distinct advantage.

In cases of crime to be detected or dealt with in any form there is no division of control or authority. This leads to simplification of all measures necessary for the maintenance of order and to accuracy in all statistics regarding crime in the dominion. The finger-print system of identification receives much attention and every member of the force is fully instructed in its details. The Commissioner of Police in his Report for 1908 bears striking testimony to the value of the system by his statement that criminals have been identified in many parts of the world through finger-prints taken in New Zealand.

The total police strength in the dominion on 31st March, 1908, was 734 of all ranks. The cost during the previous financial year was £158,000. The proportion of police to population is one in 1,331 at a cost of 3s. 2½d. per inhabitant. This places New Zealand in both cases in the first position among the Australasian States. The nearest approach to New Zealand as regards the proportion of police to population is in South Australia where it is one to 1,023, and as regards cost in Tasmania where it is 3s. 10d. per inhabitant. The rates of pay of the police force are:—

CRIMINALS IDENTIFIED

Commissioner	£600 per annum.
Inspectors	from £330 to £440 " "
Sub-Inspectors	" £260 " £310 " "
Sergeant-Major	" 12s. 0d. " day.
Sergeants	from 10s. 0d. to 11s. 6d. " "
Constables	" 7s. 0d. " 9s. 0d. " "
Chief Detectives	" 13s. 6d. " 15s. 6d. " "
Detectives	" 9s. 6d. " 14s. 6d. " "
Finger-print Expert	£200 " annum.

The Commissioner remarks in his report that there is no lack of candidates.

In 1899 a Police Provident Fund was established by Act and has proved not only of much benefit to the members of the force, but has been the cause of saving the government from an expenditure of about £19,000. The Fund provides the retiring allowances and pensions of the force. It took the place of one established in 1886 called the Police Reward Fund. The 1899 Fund consists of the moneys transferred from the fund just mentioned; fines under the Police Force Act of 1886, levies on the pay of the members of the force, and certain sums paid out of the Consolidated Fund. It is administered by a Board consisting of:—

The Minister of the Department.

The Public Trustee.

The Commissioner and the Inspector of Police in Wellington.

It will, of course, be understood from the foregoing account of the force that members have to take duty in any part of the dominion.

It is yet possible that the police will, in future, be brought into the general superannuation scheme not long since brought into force. At present they are not at all inclined to abandon what they have already secured.

The cost of the force per inhabitant has not varied much during the past eight years. In 1900 it was 2s. 10½d. and in 1908 it was 3s. 2½d.

CHAPTER XVIII

ALIEN QUESTION

Legislation regarding Chinese immigration—Persons prohibited from landing—Penalties.

THE alien question must always be an important one as regards the conditions of any country, but more especially is it the case when a dominion such as New Zealand has to be considered.

In New Zealand the principal aim of restrictive legislation in this matter has been the exclusion of the Chinese in any number likely to be of material harm morally or economically to the whole community. Whatever may be the position of the Chinese as regards habits of industry—and no one can deny their possession of that quality—it was evident that their arrival, possibly in hordes, could only result in the Europeans finding themselves displaced from their employment, and the dominion eventually becoming practically a Chinese colony instead of a British one.

The Government having the power to legislate for the preservation of the dominion for the white race took steps to ensure that the influx of the yellow element should be practically put an end to. The principle involved in this proceeding gave rise to much discussion in the Mother Country, but that definite official opinion is now in favour of their action may be gathered from a public statement reported to have been made on October the 28th, 1908, by the Under-Secretary for the Colonies, who declared that as far as Australia was concerned, he "agreed that it should be reserved for the white races provided they proved themselves sufficiently prolific." He also said that : "As long as the statesmen in those colonies, backed

EXCLUSION OF ASIATICS

by the unanimous opinion of their own people, said that their countries could only be well governed if the exclusion of Asiatics were maintained, the Government at home must endorse their proposals."

In order that the means adopted should be effectual the Government passed an Act placing a poll-tax on all Chinese arriving in the country. This was first fixed at £10 per head and was afterwards raised to £100.

The following is a *résumé* of some of the provisions of the Act to ensure the end desired. The master of any ship having Chinese passengers on board must declare to the customs authorities the number on board, and before any are landed he must pay £100 for each immigrant. In the case of any vessel arriving in New Zealand with more than one Chinese passenger for each 200 tons of her tonnage, the owner, master, or charterer is liable on conviction to a penalty not exceeding £100 for each Chinese passenger carried in excess. There may appear to be a degree of hardship in the penalties thus imposed on owners, masters, and agents of ships, but the desire of the Chinese to emigrate to countries where they could work under what to them would be easy conditions, well protected and under comfortable circumstances, was perfectly well known to shipping circles in China and offered opportunities of full ships at good rates. It was no concern of theirs whether Chinese flooded New Zealand or not. The steady decrease of the number of Chinese in the dominion was satisfactory between the years 1891 and 1906, as may be judged from the following figures. In 1891 there were 4,444; in 1901, 2,857; and in 1906, 2,570. By the end of 1907, however, the number of Chinese had increased to 2,724.

It doubtless became evident to the Government during that year that the measures taken in the past had not been sufficient to prevent the number of Chinese becoming unduly increased, as in the year referred to they added to

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

the stringency of the regulations. The principal point in the Act of 1907 was the imposition of a reading test. Under this regulation Chinese immigrants are not allowed to land unless a principal officer of customs is satisfied that each of them can read a printed passage of not less than 100 words of the English language, selected at the officer's discretion. Any Chinaman dissatisfied with the officer's decision may appeal to a magistrate, who can administer any further reading test that he thinks fit. His decision is final. A great majority of the Chinese in the dominion petitioned the Governor against this legislation principally on the ground that the question had not been adequately considered. The petition was forwarded to the home government for consideration. The Act was reserved for the assent of His Majesty which has since been given.

The dominion is justified in preserving to its own people the fruits of all their labour and expenditure in developing and civilizing the country, and excluding the yellow race, who do not in reality contribute to the wealth and well-being of the community. An overwhelming proportion of Chinese emigrants go to countries other than their own with but one specific object, namely, that of acquiring wealth which they intend to take back with them to China.

The legislation has not been confined to China alone, as New Zealand was determined to preserve her people from contamination through all who were deemed undesirable persons. To give effect to this fundamental principle Acts dealing with the restriction of immigration were passed in 1899 and 1906. By the first-mentioned Act it was laid down who should be the persons to be prohibited from landing in New Zealand. The following are the important provisions :—

(I) PROHIBITED PERSONS.

1. Any person other than those of British (including

A PETITION FROM THE CHINESE

Irish) birth and parentage, who when asked to do so by an officer appointed under the Act, fails to himself write out and sign in the presence of that officer in any European language an application according to a prescribed form. In this case anyone dissatisfied with the decision of the officer can appeal to the nearest Stipendiary Magistrate, who can make such inquiries as he thinks fit. His decision is final.

2. Any person who is an idiot, or insane.
3. Any person suffering from a contagious disease which is loathsome or dangerous.
4. Any person arriving in New Zealand before the end of the second year from the completion of a term of imprisonment for an offence, which in New Zealand would be punishable by death, or by two years' imprisonment or upwards, not being a political offence, and no pardon having been granted.

II. ALTERNATIVES.

Anyone not coming under 2, 3, or 4 will be allowed to stay in New Zealand provided :—

- (a) He deposits £100 before landing, and
- (b) obtains within fourteen days of landing a certificate that he does not come within the prohibitions laid down by the Act.

If within the period just mentioned he obtains the necessary certificate his deposit is returned.

III.—PENALTIES.

If the certificate is not obtained the £100 deposit is forfeited and he is considered to be a prohibited immigrant who has landed unlawfully in New Zealand. Any person who lands unlawfully is not only liable to the penalty of £100 but also to be removed from the dominion. Pending his removal he may be detained in prison for any period up to six months.

When the £100 penalty is paid he can be released, on

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

finding two approved securities in £50 each, that he will leave New Zealand within a month.

The owner and master of a vessel which brings to New Zealand prohibited immigrants who land unlawfully are liable to heavy penalties for disregarding the Act. They must also defray all expenses incurred by the authorities in connection with their neglect to conform to the regulations. In default of payment of penalties, the vessel may be sold.

Those who wilfully assist prohibited immigrants to break the law are themselves liable to heavy penalties.

The question of keeping the oversea dominions of the British Empire exclusively for white men is a very complex one, so different are the circumstances surrounding it in the various colonies and dependencies of the Crown. In almost every one of these it assumes a different aspect. It will, however, be seen that great pains have been taken in New Zealand to prevent not only Chinese but all other undesirables from landing in the dominion.

PART IV

SOCIAL LIFE IN THE DOMINION

CHAPTER I

RELIGIOUS, SOCIAL, AND DOMESTIC LIFE ; DRINK AND GAMBLING

STATISTICS on religious bodies—Early development of intelligence in children—How New Zealand women occupy themselves—The farmer's life—Entertainments—The servant question—Shops and stores—Effect of wealth on social life.

THE religious bodies in the dominion are, perhaps, more numerous than in any other country with the same population. The returns obtained since the census of 1906 from the people themselves show that there were in all thirteen well-known denominations and two groups of sects not contained within those usually specified. There were also four divisions classed under "no denomination," as well as one under the heading "No religion." In addition to the above there were 24,325 inhabitants who objected to state their denomination, and 1,884 who gave no answer at all on the matter.

The Church of England numbered 368,065 or 41·51 per cent. of the total ; Presbyterians, 203,597 or 22·96 per cent. ; Roman Catholics, 126,995 or 14·32 per cent. ; Methodists, 89,038 or 10·06 per cent. ; and Baptists, 17,747 or 2 per cent. The other sects and denominations in no case represented more than 1 per cent.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Among those alluded to as belonging to one or other of the denominations included within the two groups referred to above the following may be mentioned:—Brethren, Church of Christ, Christadelphians, Swedenborgians, Seventh Day Adventists, Mormons, Spiritualists, Buddhists, and Confucians.

Under the head of "No denomination" are included Freethinkers numbering 3,116 or 0·35 per cent., and Agnostics numbering 734 or 0·08 per cent.

As the cities and towns of the dominion resemble to some extent those of the Mother Country as regards style of architecture, etc., so does the domestic and social life of the dwellers bear a similarity which makes the new-comer feel that he has not quite turned his back on old England. The dogged determination of the Britisher to carry with him wherever he goes all the customs associated with home life in the Mother Country is exhibited in New Zealand to a very marked degree.

The children possess more than the average amount of intelligence such as we are accustomed to in those of tender years in England. Many a colonial child would not fear to take a journey from Auckland to Invercargill at an age when his cousin in England would fear to take a country walk without the protection of his nurse. They are quick to grasp ideas and, generally speaking, display an interest in their school life, availing themselves of the excellent opportunities offered them. The school training they receive is calculated to develop their intelligence and powers of observation, the home life cultivates habits of self-reliance.

New Zealand has shown an excellent example by the way she takes care that the youth of the dominion shall become indoctrinated during school life with obligations due to the Empire at large. All are systematically instructed in the public schools as to the duty they owe

THE NATIONAL FLAG SALUTED

to the State and are taught to respect the national flag. The Union Jack floats during the hours of instruction from a flagstaff erected in the grounds of every school throughout the country, and on "Dominion Day" (26th Sept.) a formal ceremony is held, during which the flag is saluted by every child in the school.

To encourage a taste for making the most of the natural beauties of their country the children are led to take an interest in the planting of trees and flowers, and a day called "Arbour Day" is set apart each year as a holiday in which they are induced to take their share in the beautifying of public parks and thoroughfares.

A laudable ambition is engendered in the mind of the youth as he grows up by seeing how successful have been those in prominent positions whose early advantages were certainly not greater than if even equal to his own. The father may say to his son: "Look at So-and-so; he landed without the proverbial half-crown even, and now he owns his thousands of acres and has the prefix of Honorable before his name." The lad may have pointed out to him that the coveted position of Premier of the dominion is held by a man who commenced life in a humbler walk perhaps than his own. If a colonial's heart is in his work there are few things he cannot accomplish. He may be a little too "cocksure," but extreme confidence has its advantages. As time goes on, however, and he sees a little of the world he finds that his opinions require to be somewhat modified.

The young people of the dominion show great skill in whatever requires physical energy, and are very keen on all kinds of games and sports.

This independence of character and self-reliance is not confined to one sex. The woman reared in the dominion is conspicuous for her perseverance and adaptability to surroundings. Many New Zealand women have obtained distinction in their university careers and

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

brought credit to the dominion by literary and scientific achievements.

The way in which the New Zealand housewife takes her share, often more than her share, in the everyday struggle of up-country life is proverbial. Nor does she confine herself merely to the achievements of home life. When any subject of general interest to the community turns up she is ready to take her share in moulding public opinion, and shows an organizing skill in political matters.

The influence she is able to exercise is much enhanced owing to the universal hospitality so conspicuous in the dominion. Thus the New Zealand woman is thrown in contact under the most favourable circumstances with members of both sexes in various walks of life.

The up-country hostess in the dominion oftentimes shows a resourcefulness in providing for an unexpected number of guests, and her graciousness of manner as well as the absence of ceremony with which she dispenses the hospitality of her house are most characteristic. She may have had to cook the dinner, but she makes no concealment of the fact. All is done cheerily and brightly, and she is ready to take her share in whatever may at the time be interesting those round her hospitable table. Not only does she show herself to be quite at home in all domestic matters, but she finds time to attend to the garden and poultry-yard, and sometimes may be called upon to bring up a motherless calf or lamb.

It must not be supposed from the above that in New Zealand woman has all work and no play. That such was more or less the case in the early days of the colony there is no doubt, but the present great prosperity of the dominion has brought to many a woman well-earned leisure, and has made it unnecessary for the rising generation to lead the strenuous life of their parents. The woman of leisure in New Zealand employs her time in much the same way as one in England or other European

A TRUE WOMAN

countries, and is surrounded by the same luxuries to be found in old lands.

As is the mother so must the daughter be. In many an up-country settlement they must be prepared to take their share in the drudgery of domestic life when it is out of the question to have a servant on account of the wages required or the dearth of supply. Nothing comes amiss to these young people in kitchen work, laundry work, etc. If a horse is wanted for riding or driving, one of them will go into a paddock, catch a horse and saddle or harness it. Similarly in details of domestic life they get into the habit of turning their hand to everything and seem to take to it very pleasantly.

The children of the well-to-do are frequently sent to Europe to finish their education, not so much on account of the mere educational advantages, for these can be obtained in the dominion, but in order that the young mind may be enlarged by a more extended view of life. Many young people also visit Europe to specialize in one or other of the arts or sciences.

The comfortable houses even in the most remote parts represent almost palaces to those who lived in the colony in early days. They possess accommodation and conveniences often longed for, but not obtainable, forty years ago. For instance, the kitchen range, often the most modern type, has replaced that terror of the newcomer, the colonial oven. Until experience of the latter had been gained as to its mysterious management many a joint was burnt to a cinder, or else it arrived on the table as if it had never been even near the fire.

Nowadays one frequently comes across, in both town and country, houses planted in the middle of park-like grounds or gardens, as well kept up as in the Mother Country, and of which the domestic appointments leave little or nothing to be desired.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

There is a general alertness in all that goes on in colonial life which is suitable to the brightness and cheeriness of the country. The working man has not too many hours of toil and has many relaxations. The business man commences his occupation at an earlier hour than is common in England, but he has compensation in the absence of many of the strict conventionalities of the Mother Country.

Club life exists in much the same way as it does in England and has similar comforts. It is, however, more extended, inasmuch as the working man has a greater opportunity of joining in it than those in a similar rank in life in England.

The life of the up-country man, should he be a farmer, has much in it that is enviable. Firstly, his life is a healthy one. To this many a delicate youth from across the sea can testify, and has lived to bless the day when he turned his thoughts to New Zealand. The colonial farmer or farm hand is almost certain to be a good rider, for from childhood he has probably in company with his brothers and sisters daily mounted some quiet old horse for a ride of several miles to school. One may see two or three of these youngsters on a horse as happy as kings.

The farmer's life is full of interest, especially if his should be a cattle-run. There at cattle mustering with a good horse under him, probably as keen as himself at heading a refractory beast, he has real sport hard to beat.

Bush-felling has its peculiar excitement and the acquiring of skill in its execution has its attractions. To see one of the monarchs of the forest fall by the work of his hands is a thrilling experience. In fact the up-country man has a far better time on the whole than his women-kind. He may have to engage in hard physical labour, but there is in his occupation a certain amount of variety, and all his work is in the open. The question is often asked as to what is the position as regards drink and

A LIGHT-HEARTED PEOPLE

gambling. Speaking generally, the colonial proper, that is the man born in the dominion, is not given to excessive drinking. All are, however, given to gambling, perhaps not more than those in other parts of the British dominions, but certainly not less. Thousands of people who go to a race meeting do so simply for the purpose of putting money in the totalisator. They care and know nothing about the horses concerned. It is the gamble and not racing that attracts them.

Opportunities for recreation are numerous for the inhabitants of both town and country. The sixteen registered holidays of the year secure for every one a healthful rest from the routine of daily life.

The colonials take their pleasures light-heartedly and enjoy them thoroughly. In the cities and all the principal towns plays are produced by good companies that visit them from time to time, and concerts both vocal and instrumental are of frequent occurrence. Some of the best artistes, musical and dramatic, visit the country and give the people in this far-off land an opportunity of seeing acting and hearing voices that have a world-wide reputation. The crowds at theatres and concerts show how attractive such enjoyments are to the people, whose applause gives evidence as to how keen is their appreciation. Race meetings afford other opportunities for the pleasure seeker to enjoy himself thoroughly. The principal race meetings provide perhaps the greatest social functions of the year.

The country picnic is a favourite pastime, and this is natural in a country where, when it is fine, the atmospheric conditions are so favourable and the weather so thoroughly delightful that to stay indoors would be almost a crime. Moreover, there is no part of the country where the dwellers in towns may not quickly and easily reach places suitable for such enjoyments.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Dancing is a great source of pleasure and the colonial is noted for proficiency in the art.

It has been stated elsewhere what an amount of sport of all kinds is available for those who have the leisure to enjoy it.

Wellington being the seat of government and the place of residence of His Excellency the Governor all official functions are held there. The Governor holds yearly a levee which is largely attended by both officials and civilians. There is nothing in the dominion which corresponds to the "Drawing-rooms" as held in England.

Government House, however, dispenses hospitality on a large scale, and dinner parties, balls, and garden parties seem to follow one another in quick succession, especially when Parliament is sitting. When those who occupy the highest position in the dominion take an interest in the people and their pursuits and show by their kindness and graciousness of manner, as well as by their courtesy, that everyone, whatever may be his or her social position, is a welcome guest, a real influence for good is sure to be exerted. This was never more strikingly exemplified than when Lord and Lady Ranfurly were at Government House.

During the "season" in Wellington there is a good deal of entertaining outside Government House, both public and private balls and parties being not infrequent. "At Homes" are the order of the day and there is many a bridge party given, as that insidious game has taken as firm a hold in the Antipodes as it has in the old world.

In other parts of the country outside Wellington balls are given frequently during the winter months of June, July, and August. Even in remote up-country settlements very enjoyable social gatherings take place in a town-hall or other public room, at which dancing is kept up to the early hours of the morning. At these gatherings



GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS, WELLINGTON

CHARITIES SUPPORTED

one is often amazed at, and cannot help admiring, the zest with which dancing is engaged in by one who has been at work from six o'clock the previous morning, and may have many miles to ride before getting home when the party is over.

Great interest is taken by colonials in getting up entertainments on behalf of charities, and considerable talent is often exhibited on these occasions.

The servant question in New Zealand has always been a serious one and at the present moment it has reached an acute stage. This probably has arisen from the prosperity of the dominion, enabling the small settler with daughters to either keep the latter at home or to give them the "advantage" of technical education as offered to all and sundry by the Government. Such so-called "education" naturally unfits them for domestic service.

The shops and stores are generally of a high class. It is true that such mammoth establishments as "Harrods" or the "Army and Navy Stores" are not to be met with; yet the excellence of the goods in the New Zealand shops compares favourably with what one finds in such world-renowned emporiums as those mentioned. In shop windows may be seen the latest fashions, or even in some cases the advance fashions, this is rendered possible by the seasons of New Zealand and England being reversed. A buyer in London is therefore enabled to procure from wholesale houses fascinating confections in dress and millinery and ship them to New Zealand before they appear in the home shops. At any hour of the day in the principal cities one may see women whose perfectly fitting tailor-mades, dainty linen frocks, or well-cut blouses and skirts, all locally made, would arouse the admiration and envy of many a smart woman in the old country.

This speaks volumes for the enterprise of those who have secured such excellent results, considering what large salaries must be offered to induce the designers of these

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

costumes to travel so far afield as New Zealand. The dominion will doubtless in the future draw from its own ranks workers who can take leading positions as designers and fitters, but up till quite recently the only way by which the best instruction in many trades could be secured was by importing skilled instructors from Europe.

To many in the dominion a political career offers considerable attractions. It may, indeed, be spoken of as a profession in many cases. The payment of the honorarium of £300 a year in monthly instalments makes it possible for a family man without means to gladly accept the position. There is also the advantage of travelling free by rail from one end of the dominion to the other, which may mean a great deal to a Member of Parliament whose occupation outside his political work compels him to travel. There is also attached to the political career the prospect of one day occupying a seat in the Cabinet, or at least having the honour of being raised to the Upper House. Though of late years the personnel of the House has greatly altered, whether for better or worse remains to be seen, those who have large investments or undertakings in the country are now not in so large a proportion as in days gone by. Now labour has a predominating influence. As might be expected under the circumstances alluded to above, there is always a large proportion of young members to be found on the benches of the Houses of Representatives.

Although in New Zealand there is not the same great disparity of income which one finds in the Mother Country yet there are many people who may without exaggeration be described as rich. Wealth has its effects in the dominion as elsewhere and society, as it is generally understood, is equally influenced by the assumptions too often associated with its possession. The period during which it has held its sway has only extended over a comparatively few years, but it has already lessened the

THE POWER OF WEALTH

attractiveness which was so characteristic of social life in New Zealand in days gone by.

Another reason for this change is that nowadays travelling is so much more easily accomplished, and journeys to Europe are so frequently made, that many things formerly looked upon as luxuries are now considered necessities.

Whatever may be our regrets at these changes in the character of social life in the dominion, one may hopefully look forward to the future of New Zealand as a country which will continue to supply the British Empire with some of the best elements that have combined to make it the greatest in the world's history.

CHAPTER II

SPORT

FOOTBALL—Bowls—Hunting—Deer—Duck-shooting—Pheasants—Pig-hunting—Game season and cost of licences—Trout-fishing—Fishing season and cost of licences—Yachting—Swimming—Walking and racing—The “totalisator”—Remarks on climbing—Motoring.

THE people of New Zealand are devoted to all kinds of sport and athletics, and almost every leisure hour is occupied in taking part in them either as performers or spectators.

Racing, hunting, fishing, shooting, rowing, cricket, yachting, golf, football, and tennis, besides many other sports, have each their votaries who enter into them with zest, showing that out-of-door amusements form a really important part of the national life.

Although New Zealanders are not able to show a pre-eminence in all forms of sport, they are still able to point to many in which they have proved their ability to do more than hold their own. For instance, the rowing championship of the world is at present held by a Wanganui sculler, and the same position was previously held by one born in the dominion. The “All-Black” Rugby Football Team, which visited England in 1905, was also able to show that in another form of peculiarly British sport they were practically invincible. In fact, they took Englishmen completely by storm owing to the dash and excellence of their play.

New Zealand may claim also to have furnished lawn tennis players of world-wide renown, such as Wilding and Parker, who have established their right to be reckoned amongst the finest exponents of the game in both hemispheres.

MANY FORMS OF SPORT

Rugby football is without doubt *the* game of New Zealand and arouses an enthusiasm not approached by any other. It is played as it should be, with vigour and science, by men imbued with the true spirit of sport and not with the desire of making money out of their powers.

Cricket is not taken up with anything approaching the same amount of enthusiasm, and no high standard of excellence has been attained in the dominion, although there are some really good individual players.

Golf has taken firm hold within the last twenty years in the same way that it has in England, and there are many good links to be found in various parts of the country. The championship of Australia has been won on more than one occasion by a New Zealander, and the championship of New Zealand has been won by a Maori.

The game of bowls has many devoted adherents, and every town of any size has one or more good greens which are crowded with players in summer during the long evenings, and on every holiday. On the club grounds are to be found fine pavilions having every comfort suggested by modern ideas.

In a country where nearly everyone rides, polo, as might be expected, takes a prominent place, and many interesting battles are fought, not only locally but in Australia, by teams of no mean standard of excellence. The necessity of having the particular class of pony required for this game was early recognized and has now become an important item in horse-breeding. Many first-class polo ponies have been exported to India and Australia, as well as to England, and have found a ready sale at high prices.

Hunting, owing to there being no foxes, cannot be compared with the same sport in the old country, but there are packs of hounds in many places, and both the hare and the drag afford many a good run. It must not be thought, because hunting can only be obtained in this

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

form, that no excitement is attached to it. The country which is hunted over gives opportunities that cannot be surpassed for trying the staying and jumping powers of hunters as well as the nerve of the rider and his skill in horsemanship.

Many of those who hunt in England would find, if they followed that sport in New Zealand, not only the timber and other fences they were accustomed to but also at times nerve-trying bare wire fences in their most unattractive form. The marvellous manner in which horses will take wire jumps even in cold blood, in hunters' tests at agricultural shows, is something that must be seen to be appreciated.

The sport has resulted in the breeding of a fine class of horses of the hunter class. The general turn out of the field may not be so superlatively smart as what one would expect at a meet of the Quorn, but both men and women take part in the sport in large numbers, and their well-fed and well-groomed horses would bear favourable comparison with many in the old country. Outside New Zealand it is often supposed that no care whatever is taken of horses in the dominion, but although the climate, in the North Island at all events, permits of their being turned out all the year round with only a rug on, the colonist knows far better than to allow an animal to become useless, through not being properly looked after.

There is an abundance of deer, both red and fallow, to be found in certain districts throughout the dominion, which afford sport under varied conditions of interest and excitement. The first red deer imported into New Zealand were a stag and two hinds, which were given by Lord Petre, and landed in the Nelson Province in 1861. These were followed in 1862 by some which were obtained from the Royal Park at Windsor through the gracious assistance of the late Prince Consort, and sent to the Wairarapa. There they have increased in number

DEER-STALKING

enormously, and developed great size and magnificent heads. By some it is said that this is due to a German strain in the blood, but it would appear also to be accounted for by the change of climate, environment, and a full supply of suitable feed, to say nothing of the large areas of really dense natural forest which afford undisturbed sanctuary.

The sport is one which is not very extensively taken up by New Zealanders generally. It occupies too much time for those who are usually fully employed in the occupations of their daily life. Deer-stalking, however, draws people from many parts of the world as the general excellence of the sport to be obtained is, perhaps, unequalled anywhere else. In addition to this, the extraordinary cheapness of deer-stalking in the dominion attracts to its shores many who are devoted to it but unable to enjoy the sport in the old country, on account of the almost prohibitive cost.

Red deer were imported into Otago in 1871, and have also developed into large herds. They are also to be found in parts of Canterbury, and as they increase will doubtless spread over other districts of the dominion which they may find suitable to their habits. The finest head ever seen in New Zealand was obtained in Canterbury in 1907. The measurements of the two antlers were respectively forty-seven and forty-two and a half inches.

The districts in which these deer are to be found vary very much in character, those in the south being mountainous and requiring considerably more activity as well as involving much greater fatigue than is required in others. In contrast to these is the Wairarapa district, north of Wellington, where the country does not present such great difficulties. The country in which deer-stalking is to be obtained is in all cases truly wild, inasmuch as most of it is in its virgin state and is not land that has been withdrawn from pastoral purposes for conversion into

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

deer forests. Some of the best stocked deer forests are on private property, but landowners are always ready to afford every facility to true sportsmen to enjoy deer stalking.

Fallow deer are to be found in the Waikato, Auckland, Wanganui, Nelson, Marlborough, and Otago districts.

Sambur, or the Ceylon Elk, and Axis deer have been imported and placed in districts considered climatically suitable for their development. They are strictly protected, and it is as yet impossible to say what effect they will have on the sport of the dominion.

The table on page 305 shows how inexpensively, in regard to fees, deer-stalking can be obtained in New Zealand.

There is good duck-shooting to be had in several parts of New Zealand, the grey duck affording as much wild sport as is to be found anywhere as far as flight shooting is concerned, as they are strong on the wing. Many of the swamps and lakes being absolutely covered with them there is excellent opportunity of getting very good sport, when they are moving from pool to pool or lake to lake. Decoy shooting is much in vogue on Lake Ellesmere, in Canterbury, but does not afford the same real enjoyment. In fact, it has become there almost a trade.

There are also one or two descriptions of teal to be found affording much the same sport as in the old country.

The Paradise duck still affords a so-called form of sport, but owing to its extraordinary tameness and easy flight, it has been nearly exterminated by those to whom shooting at something appears to be a necessity.

Black swans are also to be found in large numbers on the lakes. They fly at a considerable height in moving from one place to another, thus affording many a good sporting shot to one who happens to be out at night after wild fowl.

Quail shooting is to be had in abundance in some places

District.	Species.	Season.*	Licence Fee.	Restrictions.
Waitaki & Waimate Acclim. District ..	Red ..	1st April to 30th May ..	£3	Limit, 4 stags. No stag with less than 8 points to be shot.
Otago	Red ..	1st April to 31st May ..	£5	Limit, 4 stags. No stag with less than 8 points to be shot.
Ditto	Fallow	10th April to 9th May ..	£2	Limit, 4 bucks. No buck with less than 8 points to be shot. Ball cartridge only.
Wanganui (Counties Wanganui & Waito- tara)	Fallow	1st April to 15th May ..	£1	Limit, 2 bucks. Only 20 licences issued. No buck with less than 4 points to be shot.
Wairapa (Counties Wairapa S. and Featherston) ..	Red ..	1st April to 15th May ..	£2	Limit, 4 stags. No stag with less than 10 points to be shot.
Marlborough (Counties Marlborough and Sounds)	Red or Fallow	23rd February to 22nd April	£1	Limit, 6 stags or bucks.
Nelson (Counties Waimae, Buller, and Collingwood) ..	Red or Fallow	1st March to 29th April ..	£1	Limit, 6 stags or bucks.
Hawke's Bay County ..	Red ..	20th March to 30th April ..	£5	Limit, 2 stags. No stag with less than 10 points to be shot.
South Canterbury ..	Red ..	1st April to 1st June ..	£2	Limit, 2 stags.
" ..	Fallow	1st April to 1st June ..	£2	Limit, 2 bucks.

* Dates of seasons are liable to be altered from time to time.

Sportsmen are recommended to use soft-nosed bullets for deer.

NOTE.—In Waitaki, Waimate, and Otago Districts for a fee of £5 an additional licence, to shoot four red-deer stags with not less than eight points each, can be obtained by giving three days' notice to the Chief Postmaster in the respective districts. Hinds and does are absolutely protected.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

and particularly in the Nelson district, but these birds seem to be less numerous than formerly.

The shooting to be found in the open on the hill-sides, where scrub does not abound, gives very good sport. Should there, however, be cover, in the shape of bushes of any sort lying closely together, there is none, as they lie very close and are up out of one patch of scrub and into another very quickly. The result is that they afford a momentary opportunity at very short range, which, if taken advantage of, results in their being blown to pieces.

There are hares in many parts of the country, which provide fair coursing, and such sport as usually attends that class of shooting. They attain a much greater average in weight than their kindred in the old country and are more prolific. The average weight of full-grown hares may be taken at ten pounds.

Pukeko, or swamp hens, give but poor sport, as they are great runners, and it is difficult to get them up. When they do take to the wing they are slow fliers and easy to hit. Walking through a swamp in line up wind by several guns is the best way to get any sport out of Pukeko shooting.

Speaking generally, the success of shooting as a sport has not been as marked as it was expected to be when game birds were imported. They have not made the necessary headway to enable shooting to be carried out on a large scale.

Partridges, except a few of the French red-legged kind which are found in isolated places, have completely disappeared. Pheasants are now confined to a few limited areas, and as there is no possibility of breeding and preserving, in the old country sense of the word, they will probably never increase in sufficient numbers to provide any shooting worth speaking of. In many places in the North Island, only a few years ago, it almost seemed as if

THE EVERLASTING RABBIT

they would increase, but the clearing and burning of bush and scrub-land, necessary in breaking in new country, destroyed nests and eggs by hundreds. Hawks, weasels, stoats, and ferrets, not to speak of poison laid down for rabbits, have also contributed largely to their destruction.

Pig-hunting has provided a sport that is not to be despised, although it may not be permissible to class it with pig-sticking in India. Those, however, who are fortunate enough to have taken part in a real bush hunt with dogs well trained for that sport will have found that it is not entirely devoid of incident. A good old boar, when he has been properly worried from place to place, and is determined to make a fight of it, shows very often quite enough sport to satisfy even the most ardent sportsman.

Goat shooting may not, perhaps, be classed amongst the best of sports, but it nevertheless affords a healthful recreation to many who enjoy a hard day's work climbing rugged and dangerous rocky country in the pursuit of game. Those who take up this sport are well rewarded for their trouble, as they are often able to obtain unusually fine skins and heads.

Wild-cattle shooting has provided very exciting sport in some of the bush districts ; but as the bush is rapidly disappearing owing to the necessities of settlement it is becoming year by year less easy to obtain.

Rabbit shooting can unfortunately be obtained in almost every part of New Zealand as the little pest has found its way to every spot where grass grows. Rabbit killing is taken up with the sole object of extermination.

A large industry has now developed in frozen rabbits, and in rabbit skins ; every means being employed by the rabbiters to turn them into pounds, shillings, and pence.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The following table shows the shooting season and the cost of licences :—

GAME SEASONS

Native and imported game, 1st May to 31st July. Licence fee, £1.

Licences are procurable from the secretaries of the respective Acclimatization Societies, or from the postmasters in their districts.

NOTE.—The year 1901 and every third year thereafter will be a close season for native game, *i.e.*, pigeons, kakas, and pukeko.

Whatever may be the case as regards the position that New Zealand holds generally in the world of sport, there is no doubt that in trout fishing she holds absolute pre-eminence. Where else in the world could the catch of one district of one particular class of trout taken with the rod alone amount to fifty-two in seven months? Such was actually the case, however, in the two small lakes of Rotoiti and Rotorna and the neighbouring streams within the narrow boundaries of Rotorna County during a recent season. The fishing may not present the pleasure of walking along the banks of a stream amongst the quiet and charming surroundings characteristic of English scenery, but for quality and quantity of fish the sport in New Zealand cannot be equalled.

That the fisherman may find almost every description of trout on which to exercise his skill may be gathered from the fact that Brown trout, Loch Leven trout, Scotch burn trout, Californian rainbow trout, and American brook char have been distributed in the various rivers and streams according to the suitability of the latter to the various classes of fish.

The trout in the Rotorna district are of the rainbow species, and are admirably suited to its waters, as may be gathered from the account already given of the large catch made in the year 1905-6. Here trout running to twenty pounds and over may be caught. A friend of the writer's, landed before breakfast six of these fish, totalling thirty-two pounds.

THE FISHERMAN'S PARADISE

The American brook char, although it reached abnormal size and weight in the early years after its introduction up to even thirty pounds, did not seem inclined to make a permanent home of the rivers although they went up there to spawn. They went down to the sea in pursuit of small fish for food, and developed into a powerful and heavy sort of sea trout which have afforded fine sport, and doubtless have given rise to the idea that salmon had established themselves.

The brown trout has developed enormously, and in some of the big lakes, such for instance as Wakatipu, many scaling over twenty-five pounds are often caught. In these lakes no lure invented by man has any chance; the net is the only means of capture. The largest fish, brown trout, are usually caught with a minnow, at the mouths of the rivers in the South Island.

The fly-fisher has, however, ample scope for display of his skill in New Zealand, and good fish up to even eight pounds can be landed. The rivers, streams, and lakes are teeming with fine fighting fish which give good sport to anyone really devoted to angling, even if they do not attain extraordinary weights.

Fish hatcheries have been established in almost every part of New Zealand where the circumstances are suitable, and by them the lakes, rivers, and streams throughout the dominion have been, and are still being, stocked with the trout which make the islands so famous for the attractions it offers to the fisherman.

Praiseworthy attempts have been made by the Acclimatization Societies and private individuals, for upwards of thirty years to introduce salmon into the rivers. Reports as to salmon having been caught have appeared from time to time, but with one exception did not bear sufficient scientific endorsement. In the Report, however, of the Marine Department for the year 1908 the Chief Inspector of Fisheries states that at last, after many years,

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

a specimen of a New Zealand bred fish has been submitted to him which he is able to identify as a quinnat salmon. The Government has been at great pains for a considerable time to introduce Atlantic salmon, and has imported large quantities of ova. It is to be hoped that the one identified specimen of salmon may prove the forerunner of a great many successors, and establish salmon fishing as a sport.

To the Acclimatization Societies is due the success which has attended the importation and distribution of trout. They have not only spent large sums in that work, but they have diffused knowledge and always shown a willingness to give every information on the subject to those interested. This, too, without any reward except the knowledge that they have thus increased the many attractions of the dominion.

It may be remarked that fishing can be obtained in every lake, river, or stream in New Zealand as, although some of the fishing waters are within private bounds, such a thing as refusal of permission to fish is almost unknown.

It must be mentioned that the aid given by the Government to the Acclimatization Societies has been most valuable to the dominion. As an example of this it may be pointed out that in one Government handbook alone, sixty-five rivers and streams are given as available for fishing, together with the means of access and the accommodation available.

The following table will show at how small a cost fishing licences may be obtained. It also shows the season in which the sport may be indulged in.

FISHING SEASONS

The fishing season throughout the dominion is from the 1st October to the 30th of April, except in the Auckland District, where it is from the 1st of November to the

COLONIAL YACHTSMEN

15th of April, and Rotorna County, where it is from the 1st of November to the 30th of April.

Men's licences	£1 per season
Ladies' "	5s. " "
Boys' (under 16 years) licences	5s. " "

Licences are available throughout the dominion, and are procurable from the secretaries of the respective Acclimatization Societies, or from postmasters in their districts.

Yachting is a sport to which some of the New Zealanders are much devoted and which has increased considerably of late years. It is rather astonishing that it has not become a much greater pastime, as there are many parts of the dominion particularly suitable for developing a passion for life on the sea which is characteristic in every island race, especially those having their origin in the British Isles.

Auckland is the New Zealand home of yachting, as the sheltered waters of the Hauraki Gulf form the best cruising ground imaginable. Here yachts may be seen in numbers in the summer time studding the harbour and its approaches with their white sails. It is the only place in the dominion where yachting is carried on to any appreciable extent, although some is also to be had at Wellington, Lyttelton, and Port Chalmers.

The yachts are small in comparison with those one is accustomed to in English waters. Yacht-building, however, is yet in its infancy in New Zealand. Regattas are got up wherever yachts are to be found, not only as an outlet for the passion inherent in every Briton for a race in some form or other, but also to provide a real gala day for the people. Great crowds are to be seen at all regattas, which embrace both sailing and rowing races.

The desire to excel in the handling of yachts is, of course, a passion amongst the yacht sailors, and they show considerable skill by the way they manage these small

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

craft under all conditions of weather. The rivalry between the different yachting centres is very keen, and small craft are sailed even from one end of the dominion to the other, on what may be fairly called stormy coasts, to compete at regattas.

Swimming is a sport largely cultivated and with much advantage to the people of the dominion. Some well contested events take place at the numerous races.

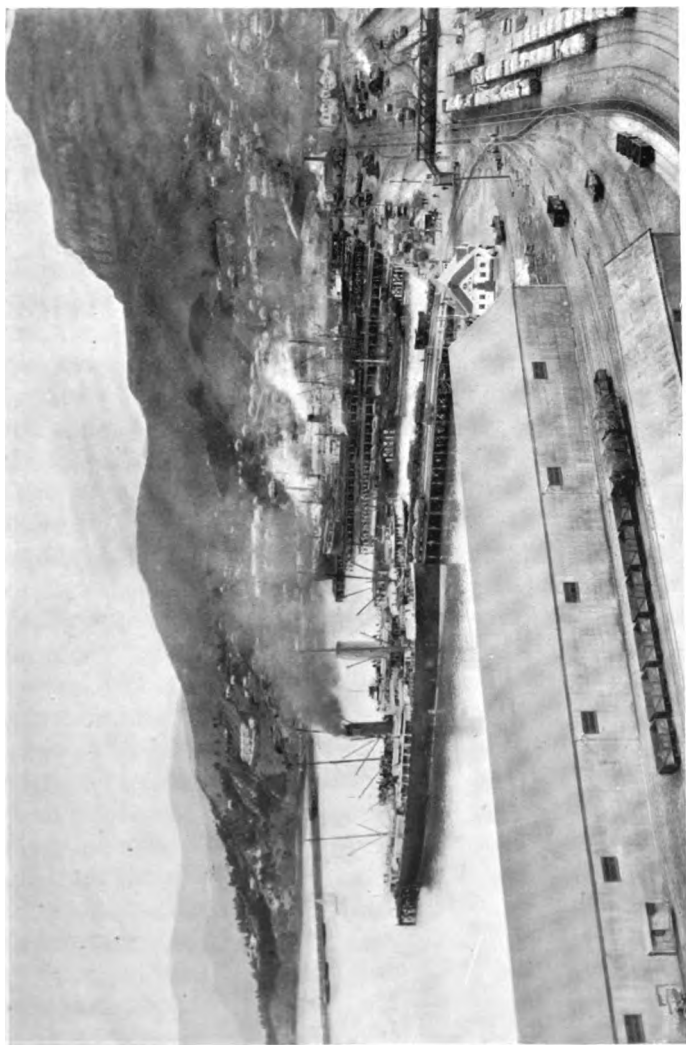
Pedestrian contests take place throughout New Zealand and evoke much interest. Some good records have been made in the country, and New Zealanders may be found in important races in many parts of the world doing credit to the athleticism of their native country.

Racing is undoubtedly the leading sport of the dominion, and is one which occupies more attention on the part of all grades of the community than any other.

The Britons brought their love of racing with them, and the Maori rapidly acquired it and are as keen about it as the Europeans.

The breeding of racehorses is an established industry, and every opportunity has been taken advantage of to procure the best blood. The result has been that some New Zealand-bred horses have won honours for their country in other parts of the world. High prices are given for thoroughbreds, as was shown at a recent sale in Christchurch, when 4,500 guineas were given for a two-year old daughter of "Multiiform," who was himself fourteen years old and fetched 3,750 guineas at the same sale.

Wealthy racing clubs are to be found throughout New Zealand and the sport is encouraged by them in every possible way. Important meetings are held at all the principal places, and small indeed is the place that cannot boast of something in the way of a race meeting. An annual New Zealand Racing Conference is held at which



LYTTELTON

RACE MEETINGS

the weighty matters in connection with the sport are fully dealt with.

Racing is not confined to one particular form ; flat racing, steeple-chasing, hurdle-racing, and trotting all contribute their quota to the development of the various sporting proclivities of the people. It can safely be said that there are almost more racing days in every year in New Zealand in proportion to its population than are to be found in any other part of the British dominions.

The principal racing centres are Auckland, Napier, Wellington, Christchurch, and Dunedin. These provide meetings at which a marvellously high standard is reached considering the age of the colony. The chief of the dominion fixtures in the year are the New Zealand Cup and the Grand National, which are both run at Christchurch.

The race meetings draw people of every class, and are the occasion of some of the greatest social functions in the dominion. The principal race-courses present on a day of some special importance a kaleidoscopic view of a well-dressed, happy crowd bent on enjoyment. Here one sees the carriages and motors of the well-to-do arriving with their occupants, while trains, trams, and every description of vehicle come laden with crowds of those not so highly favoured by fortune, but who nevertheless are determined to take their full share in the pleasures of a general holiday. Up country race-meetings, though not presenting such varying effects in colour and style, still show the general desire for making a race day one of local importance. The carriages and motors will still be there, but buggies, spring carts, and saddle horses will have brought the mass of the people instead of the trains and trams.

The sanction given by the Government to betting in connection with racing has been well-established for

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

nearly twenty years through the "Totalisator." This machine provides a form of betting to be found on every race-course in the dominion. All risks of unfairness are entirely eliminated by its operations. Licences for its use are sanctioned by the Minister of Internal Affairs. The number of licences issued during the year 1907-8 was 159. The percentage paid to the Treasury on the money invested was £30,000, and the amount invested by the public was £1,999,757.

Alpine climbing is a sport which may be said never to have possessed any particular charm for many New Zealanders. It only came into prominence about twenty-five years ago, and then was taken up by only a few adventurous spirits such as Messrs. Malcolm Ross, Mainwaring, Harper, Dixon, Clark, Fyfe, Graham, and a few others. Mrs. Malcolm Ross accompanied her husband on many occasions, and proved herself a worthy mountaineer.

The whole lesson of Alpine climbing had to be learnt from the very commencement by New Zealand climbers, who were only guided by pluck and determination to attain the necessary qualifications. The history of some of the feats performed by the plucky band of young New Zealanders is told in a quiet and modest way in books by Malcolm Ross, Mainwaring, and Harper, which afford most interesting reading. Green and Fitzgerald gave great impetus for a time to this sport, but it does not seem to have had many votaries.

Green, speaking of his first sight of the Tasman Glacier, remarked that the scene completely asserted its own grandeur, surpassed anything he had ever met with, and that he tried vainly to recall a view in Switzerland to compare with it.

The Government, have with a view to providing for the wants of tourists, established an hotel in the Alpine regions and made the principal places of interest easily

THE ADVENT OF THE MOTOR

accessible for those who are prepared to undertake the more moderate forms of Alpine climbing.

One of the most remarkable ascents of Mount Cook, the highest mountain in New Zealand, was made by three of the earliest pioneers of the sport in that country.

Motoring can perhaps hardly be called a sport, especially from the point of view of the pedestrian, and yet it is a pastime for those who are able to indulge in it. As in the western parts of the world so in the eastern has the motor become a permanent institution during the past few years. No doubt in years to come New Zealand will itself hold the position of being the battle ground on which will be decided the merits of locally-built cars in competition with those built in the old world. In the meantime motoring has its usefulness and will give increased opportunities to New Zealanders for taking part in that now much-loved recreation, "the week end."

It will be seen by what has been said on the subject of sport that in New Zealand there are opportunities for all to indulge in it in almost every form known.

CHAPTER III

THE PRESS

NEWSPAPERS—Names of leading dailies—Publications.

IN January, 1908, there were 232 newspapers in the dominion, or about one to every 2,000 adults. This goes far to prove that education has led to an increasing demand for literature.

Although New Zealand has not the benefit of the services in journalism of such writers as those who contribute to the leading newspapers in the Mother Country, it can be confidently asserted that even amongst the latest started up-country newspapers there are few as bad as some of the halfpenny productions of the United Kingdom.

The larger morning newspapers are well-conducted and edited, and contain a large amount of information on politics and other matters of interest concerning New Zealand as well as other parts of the world. The telegrams received from England and other places outside the dominion are not as full as they might be, but they contain sufficient to keep everybody informed of what is going on. One can find regularly in them compressed details of what events have taken place up to the hour of going to press, from the result of a debate in the British House of Commons or some fateful event in the Balkan Provinces, down to which side won the football match between the Australians and some English county.

The social part of the newspapers is very much on the same line as those in the old country. The movements



MOUNT COOK AND ST. DAVID'S DOME

FAIRNESS OF THE PRESS

of distinguished persons are recorded with faithful accuracy, the only difference being that while in England one hears that Lord So-and-so has gone to Paris and Lady This-or-that has given a dinner party, in New Zealand the chroniclers of events can only state, for instance, that the Minister for Agriculture has gone to Christchurch, or that Mr. Brown has bought a farm in the Waikato. The desire for information as to the movements and doings of notabilities is, however, as keen in New Zealand as in England, and is necessarily fully supplied. Racing news is also as eagerly sought for in the east as in the west, and is fully provided for in the columns devoted to that purpose in most of the newspapers.

The wealth of information, however, on matters of real value to the people which is contained in the principal newspapers is enormous. The notes on all matters in connection with agricultural and pastoral pursuits, which are the chief factors in the progress of the dominion, reports on produce markets throughout the world, and all the movements that promote true interest in country life are fully given, and are of the greatest value.

The other industries of the dominion are not forgotten and copious information on every matter in connection with them is supplied both daily and weekly.

A considerable portion of space is of course devoted to political matters, and strong opinions as to the merits or demerits of any measures affecting the life of the people which are proposed by the Government of the day, are as fully expressed in New Zealand as in the United Kingdom. It may, however, be said, in all fairness to the press of the dominion, that as a rule the articles dealing with political questions are not couched in tones of excessive bitterness.

There are, of course, times when matters affecting the

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

relationship between employers and employed, and also the general conditions under which the country shall be governed, arouse great excitement. On these occasions the newspaper warfare is conducted with considerable asperity, but not more perhaps than such great issues naturally arouse. The leading daily papers are the *Otago Daily Times* (Dunedin); *The Lyttelton Times* and *The Press* (Christchurch); *The New Zealand Times*, *The Dominion*, and *Evening Post* (Wellington); *The Hawkes Bay Herald* (Napier); and the *Auckland Herald*. *The Weekly Graphic* (Auckland) and the weekly editions of several, if not all, the leading newspapers are issued with numerous illustrations exhibiting high artistic excellence and compare favourably with most of the illustrated newspapers in England. Indeed, they are a great deal better than many of them.

In addition to general newspaper literature there are papers whose columns are devoted to technical, commercial, religious, scientific and other subjects, such, for instance, as horticulture, mining, poultry-farming, and shipping. Thus the wants of every description of reader are supplied.

With such a record as this New Zealand may well be proud of the journalistic progress that has been made in its short life as one of the children of the Mother Country. No magazines or periodicals in the ordinary acceptance of the term are now published in the dominion. The wants of readers of such literature have up to the present been almost entirely supplied by the importation in large numbers of English magazines. It is unfortunate that the efforts hitherto made to establish periodical literature have not met with the success they deserved, but the time for full appreciation of such good work as they contained has not arrived. There is no real cause for despair, however, as the literary talent of the dominion is being gradually developed, the University yielding each year

THE READERS' WANTS SUPPLIED

an increasing supply of women and men of high intellectual attainments in that direction.

Although there are no magazines there are several monthly publications dealing with various subjects, such for instance, as Church matters, the Stage, Defence, Freemasonry, and Shipping.

CHAPTER IV

LITERATURE AND ART

ABSENCE of Dominion literature—Musical education—Art.

THAT there is no dominion literature in the usual acceptation of the term can hardly be considered extraordinary. Although education is highly prized and has been widely taken advantage of, there has not yet been time for the evolution of a literature having its origin in New Zealand.

Signs are not wanting that the materials are in existence, many articles having appeared in the dominion's ephemeral literature, much above the average standard. It must be remembered, moreover, that the population of New Zealand has yet scarcely reached one million, and that hardly a generation has passed since the University began to give an impetus to higher learning. The result of this encouragement of education of a high class is sure to show itself before many years, and we may fairly hope that, ere another generation has passed, some valuable work of a New Zealand writer will have been given to the world.

Nature has provided the country itself with so many exceptional charms, and there is so much in the surroundings of the people to excite the imagination, that there is an ample field for the poet and the word-painter.

There are, moreover, so many social and political problems in the solution of which New Zealand is taking a prominent part, that it only wants the combination of literary skill with philosophic thought for the production of more than one work of value to the publicist.

If one takes a survey of the history of literature throughout the world one cannot help being struck by the fact that the greatest writers appeared when the greatest events were taking place in each country.

THE COLONIAL MUSICIAN

New Zealand is a young country. When years roll round and great events occur affecting the dominion, of which we can form no idea at present, the time will surely produce the man. It must not be supposed that there is any wish to ignore the literary productions of the few who have made their mark in the dominion, but the sum of all these individual efforts has not yet been sufficient to establish for New Zealand a reputation as a nursery for high-class literature.

Although New Zealand up to the present has not yielded literature that comes up to such a high standard it must not be supposed that it is not valued. On the shelves of libraries in the dominion examples of the best productions of classical authors, ancient and modern, are to be found, and there is abundant evidence that these are widely read.

As regards Music, the same may be said as was remarked under the head of literature. The country is too young to justify one in expecting the production of any work of world-wide renown. The colonial of to-day is no more musical than his English ancestor, albeit schools of music are well attended and many of the young people have studied in the conservatoires in England and other parts of the world. Up to the present neither a vocalist nor an instrumentalist has gained any peculiarly distinctive reputation outside the dominion. It is true that there are a few vocalists and instrumentalists of merit who have appeared before audiences in the old country with credit to themselves and enjoyment to their hearers, but no one has yet been placed among the great performers of the day. It is said that the climate is not suitable to the production of the magnificent voices which have distinguished more than one Australian. Music is taught in schools and occupies a fair proportion of the time devoted to education generally.

More advantage is being taken of the steadily increasing

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

opportunities for hearing good music interpreted by vocalists and instrumentalists of repute from the old world who visit the dominion.

An impetus was undoubtedly given to the cultivation of classical music through the high standard set in 1906 by the orchestra at the Christchurch Exhibition. Professional musicians of higher standing than heretofore are now being attracted to the dominion by the greater encouragement held out latterly to good teachers. Thus the musical education of the people is progressing.

Musical societies, choral societies, and Lieder-tafels, as well as orchestras and military bands, have long been part of the social life of every town in the dominion. Church music has wonderfully improved of late years, some of the choirs now showing marked ability. Much good may be anticipated from the incorporation of the Musicians' Society. Up to the present no composer has appeared in New Zealand whose name could be mentioned in the same breath with those belonging to older countries, who have attained world-wide reputation. It is not forgotten that great praise has been bestowed on the author of one opera emanating from New Zealand and connected with old Maori history.

In reference to Art the same remark may be made. No native of New Zealand has given to the world any work of note. The art schools, of which there are many, are crowded with pupils on whom much pains are bestowed by highly competent teachers, and good results are obviously following. The examinations held through these schools by the Kensington Board of Education and the City and Guilds of London Institute show that great advantage is taken of the opportunities they afford, and that a high standard of excellence is being attained.

Of sculpture there is none deserving special notice.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF ART

With few exceptions there is scarcely a painter whose work would stand comparison with that of any prominent exhibitor in the old country. It may, however, in fairness be said that there are pictures by New Zealand artists incomparably superior to many seen on the walls of exhibitions in England. When talking of New Zealand art it has been the custom to mention the names of many who have painted pictures of New Zealand scenery—fine pictures undoubtedly, but not the product of New Zealand art. The subjects of these pictures were no doubt provided by the country, but the talent of the artists had been developed before they ever landed on its shores. Pictures by some New Zealand artists are of undoubted merit, and thus one is lead to the conclusion that great developments may be looked forward to in the future. The artistic taste undoubtedly exists, but opportunities for cultivating it in its highest form have hitherto not been as numerous as one could have wished. Art societies are to be found throughout the dominion, and they are the means of exciting interest in what must have a refining influence not only on the exponents themselves, but on those who see their finished work.

Thus we see that, albeit no New Zealander has attained celebrity in the world of music or of the fine arts, taste is being steadily cultivated, and one is justified in anticipating that ere long a genius will arise in the dominion whose work will obtain a world-wide reputation.

PART V

TRADE, COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

CHAPTER I

THE LAND, AND HOW THE COLONIST HAS USED IT

PAST destruction of forests—Forest department—Farming—
Facts connected with grain growing—Agricultural industries
—Schools of farming.

AN endeavour has already been made to give a description of the long-stretching islands that stand out of the South Pacific Ocean in the region that has been called by some the under-world of Great Britain. An imaginary journey has been taken from the extreme northern point of the islands for a thousand miles and more to the southernmost point "in the roaring forties." The size of the islands has been compared with that of Great Britain, their geologic structure roughly sketched, and a few facts given as to the climate of the different districts of each island.

The material aspect of the islands has been considered, but not the change that man has wrought upon their surface.

That vast changes, and changes productive of effects of a lasting nature have been worked upon the face of the islands needs no telling.

An attempt will now be made to try to realize the degree of those changes and their main causes.

As to what degree of surface-change was made before the coming of the white man by the Maori, or the previous inhabitants of the islands, one can now but form a guess.

In that Maori period of perhaps 600 years the greatest change was due to the destruction of forest by fire. The evidence that we of to-day have of devastation in far-past times is that upon wide tracts of land that are now

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

open and treeless, and have been treeless as far back as the white man's memory goes, there still remain traces of forests that have disappeared. Various grasses two or three feet high, or fern twice that height, are spread over what was once forest land, where the land is flat. Here the soil could not be washed away, and therefore the grass and fern were able to spread over and protect it. Upon the steep hill-sides there undoubtedly stood at one time magnificent timber-trees, but the soil was washed away by heavy rains, and those hill-sides are still almost barren because nature has been deprived of her power to again cover them with vegetation.

How far the Maori is answerable for the destruction that took place in his day no one now can tell. Whether the Maori or his foregoers ever wilfully set fire to the bush, or whether the bush fires in his day were due solely to mischance or carelessness we do not know, but that wide ranges of bush land were destroyed by fire in the Maori period is certain.

It is, of course, conceivable that at some time or other the forest may have been swept away by fire not caused by man. Lightning may have set the tall, dry grass afire on the plains and wind may have whirled the fire along to the forest. Such a cause, however, in such a climate as New Zealand would, it is clear, be of the rarest occurrence, even throughout several centuries. The bush fires of Maori times must therefore have been the work of the Maori.

Whatever devastation may be attributable to the Maori, we must do him the justice to remember that he thought but little of the bush and had no idea of value in its ownership. He might at long intervals have wanted a tree to hollow into a great war-canoe, he might have wanted a beam or two for his whare or a few more posts for the defence of his Pah. Up to that time there were no other inhabitants of the islands to require timber, and the

THE PASSING OF THE FOREST

Maori before the coming of the first white man had no conception whatever of any outer world inhabited by men who might covet the possession of his forests.

The Maori then is but little to blame as a forest wrecker ; but, on the other hand, it must be said that he did nothing to produce that which might compensate for the loss of the forest.

But what of the white man ? What change for better or worse has the colonist made upon the territory that came into his possession still rich with many millions of acres of forest ?

What lasting harm and what lasting good, and which outweighs the other ? Who also is answerable for the harm that has been done, and who should have the praise for good amends made ? Could an old settler of the earliest days revisit the spot where he made his first home in the bush he would most likely find the face of the country so utterly changed that he would not know the old place, even if he could find it. It might even still be covered by the unsightly wreckage of burnt bush or perhaps the last skeleton of a tree might have decayed and vanished and the land become overspread with English grass. A less pleasant picture might, however, be before him, a wilderness of bad land, half the soil already washed away and no rich grass to compensate for half the waste that had been made of all the wealth of forest that had gone, never to grow again. The whole truth as to the unchecked waste that has been made with the forests of New Zealand is difficult to find out.

The mere measurements guessed at further on are so great that it will be a help here to recall the comparative areas of New Zealand and the United Kingdom, just to afford a scale. The area of the old country is nearly 78,000,000 acres, of which about 13,000,000 are mountain heath and rough grazing country, nearly 29,000,000 are permanent pasture, and nearly 19,000,000 arable land.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

First, then, with regard to New Zealand forest. As much of it lies in hilly or even mountainous country, only a rough estimate of its area can be made. The calculations made at various times even by the government officials vary widely.

For instance, in the *Immigrants' Guide*, published in 1906, the area is approximated at 20,000,000 acres. Yet in 1873 Dr. Hector made out that as far back as 1830 the acreage was 20,370,000, that in 1868 it was about 15,250,000, and in 1873, when he was writing, only a little over 12,000,000.

In the report of the Lands Department for 1893 under the same heading the total is put at 20,578,000 acres. This seems to be too great, because the yearly destruction of forest, even that upon Crown Land alone and apart from forest upon land privately owned, has averaged about 70,000 acres. This, if we accept Dr. Hector's figures, would bring the total down to 10,600,000 acres in 1893, to as little as 9,690,000 acres in 1906, and in 1909 to something under 9,500,000 acres.

Whatever the acreage of forest land that is left may be, one thing is quite clear from the special report made for the Government in 1905 that there was in that year only timber enough left to last for another seventy years at most. Alarming though this is it does not mean that at the end of sixty-six years from now there will be no forest whatever left standing in New Zealand. It means that there will be no timber left of the kind thought good enough at the present day for the saw-mills, but that a large quantity of inferior timber would still be left standing.

Although the forest out of which the good timber had been all cut would then be described as "worked out bush," yet the land would not be bare, and the smaller growths remaining would still help to act as a rain-sponge. This would let the rain get away slowly and safely and

PLANTING TREES

thus lessen the constant danger of floods caused by a treeless hilly country.

The story of the destruction of forests by man throughout almost all the world is not pleasant reading. The desolation that has come by that one folly upon country after country is a terrible warning. Few governments are strong enough, however, to put a stop to such wastefulness, and to firmly and wisely control the use of forest-land for the benefit of the community.

National wealth from the bush alone might have been secured for many generations had it been possible to confine settlement to open land ; much of the bush indeed was inaccessible in the early days, and some of it would have been of no value even if settlement on it had been possible. This was especially the case in the North Island. To enable even settlement to be carried on it was an absolute necessity to fell the trees, while the construction of many of the railway lines and other public works would have been out of the question without clearing away the bush. It is easy to be wise after the event.

Forty years later than it should have been done, a Forest Department was created and several timber reserves placed under its control. After a brief life of nine years this feeble beginning was given up. In the early nineties a Forestry Department was again formed and reserves put under its control, so that by the year 1906 2,300,000 acres were so protected.

The Forestry Department, in addition to protecting the reserves placed under its care, has also numerous tree-nurseries in different parts of the dominion, and with the many millions of seedlings that it raises forms plantations where they are known to be most wanted. Efforts are made by it to induce settlers and landowners of all classes to plant and protect trees, and there can be no doubt that a generation hence the benefits of reforestation will have

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

well begun to be felt in some districts. The waste of the past is now realized and there is a general determination on all sides not to allow the bush lands to be denuded.

It must not be thought that because such vast extent of bush has vanished for ever the soil which grew it has become useless. It has been calculated that over 8,000,000 acres of land that were covered with bush have been changed into pasture land by the scattering of the seed of valuable grasses upon the ashes of the burnt trees. Within a year or fifteen months of this sowing the ground is fit for light grazing.

Recurring to the question of how much man has changed the physical aspect of the country, the bush country must be left and attention turned to the plains and the lower hills. When looking upon them, the change that has altered the whole landscape would delight the heart of any settler who knew the country as it was in the early days of colonization. When he first saw the country those immense plains were wide, treeless expanses of yellowish white tussock or of the darker bracken-like ferns. Thus they remained for many years as sheep-runs with only a few acres here and there of ploughed land round the larger homesteads.

Gradually, however, the face of the country became altered. Agricultural and pastoral pursuits became profitable and shipments of produce were made to the old world.

Thanks to the great expansion of settlement and increased facilities of communication that began in 1870 an enormous advance in farming took place. Fire and the plough soon began to sweep away the native vegetation from hundreds of square miles of the plains and hills. Not many years afterwards it was possible to look down upon thousands of acres patterned out in sharp-cut angles of every form and colour as the seasons came round. There would be no grief for the loss of the endless

CULTIVATION PROGRESSES

and wearisome tussock, and one feels that no wrong has been done to nature here, and that all this wide change has been an immeasurable gain.

Take, for instance, the Canterbury plains ; not a generation ago they covered an unbroken area of 3,000,000 acres of tussock, not a tree to be seen and only here and there an unattractive wool-shed and a small match-board villa-like house not far off. Not many acres of that great plain now remain unfenced or uncultivated. Plantations and hedgerows have grown up and the whole landscape has lost the deserted look that it once bore. Other large areas throughout the country also show smiling homesteads and cultivated land where all was in its virgin state not many years ago.

But to take the cultivation of the dominion as a whole, the first kind, in extent, is the grass land. Perhaps the land that has been surface-sown can hardly be classed as cultivated, but still it shows the labour of the colonist, not so much in the sowing, but in the clearing, burning and fencing it has necessitated.

Nearly all the area of this kind consists of land from which the bush has been burnt off and the seed scattered on the ashes.

True "cultivation," in the right sense of the word, has been given to no less than 5,000,000 more acres of land that are now in grass or clover after ploughing or harrowing. White clover is everywhere. You find it in the most remote parts of the country, the seed being probably carried to some extent by stock. It is said by some that it is to a certain extent disappearing in many parts of the country, but where once it has actually taken hold of a fern country it kills the fern by slow degrees. Until the bumble-bee was brought to New Zealand in 1885 there was no insect that could fertilize the red clover. Since then other kinds of bumble-bee have been brought and now the clover seed crop is an important thing. An

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

acre of red clover may yield in hay and seed from £8 to £10.

The 13,000,000 acres of sown-grass land in New Zealand does not sound great when compared with the 29,000,000 of permanent pasture of Great Britain, but still it is an area far greater than all the sown-grass land in the whole of Australia and Tasmania. So productive is this sown-grass land in New Zealand when good and suitable seed has been used that it yields about nine times as much as in Australia, and is therefore equal for grazing purposes to an area in Australia nine times as great.

The value of the surplus grass and clover seed that was exported to other parts of the world in 1906 was close on £90,000, and on Banks' Peninsula the growing of cock's-foot seed has been a staple industry for more than a generation.

Next in area come the green crops, of which there were a little over a million acres in 1908. Then the grain-crops of about 647,000 acres, the oats being about double the wheat and the wheat five times the acreage of the barley. It seems that the good prices the farmer has in recent years been getting for his frozen mutton, wool, and butter have led him to drop wheat-growing to such an extent that the dominion has been producing only about enough for herself, leaving little or none over for export.

Thus has the colonist used the land that has been given him. Much has been lost, but much has been gained. With more experience and care better results will follow.

For all this change of surface, if we look still further we shall find that even at this day half the area of the islands still have just the same appearance as when the white man first saw them. Let us take it that only 10,000,000 of acres of bush still remain untouched, yet to be added to that area there are still 22,500,000 acres of land covered with tussock and fern, and these together form just one half of the country.

A MARVELLOUS ADVANCE

In line with all the British colonies competing for immigrants of the best class and provided with a little capital, the New Zealand Government issues admirable pamphlets free, as guides for farmers and others, and some of them are good reading for other than those who are intending to make New Zealand their home.

Every important detail that a farmer wants to know beforehand is anticipated and answered for him. The comparative cost of working a farm in New Zealand and in England is carefully worked out and all manner of useful hints are given. It must often strike the readers of such pamphlets about British colonies that the accounts given are too hopeful, and that there are some drawbacks which are not disclosed. The pamphlets which have been referred to are, however, very fair statements of the conditions of New Zealand farming.

In a country extending over thirteen degrees of latitude, and with a climate suitable for the production of almost every description of grasses and cereals, it would indeed be a wonder if agricultural and pastoral farming did not form the principal industry. The marvellous advance in farming within a comparatively short period bears testimony to the suitability of the land and the energy and capability of the cultivators of the soil. The description of the climate of New Zealand will have given an idea of the variety that is to be found in different parts of the islands. A short account of the various Land Districts which will be found elsewhere will show their respective suitability to the different classes of farming. At present it will suffice to say that every branch of both pastoral and agricultural farming is carried on in the dominion with gain both to the country and the farmer.

Grain forms one of the principal items on the agricultural list. The area sown in grain has, however, decreased of late years owing to pastoral farming affording better results.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Some of the land in the dominion is, however, exceptionally suitable for the production of wheat. Other parts again are renowned for the high quality of oats produced. In some districts the soil is admirably adapted to the growth of barley and very large yields are obtained.

It may be well to mention here some of the facts connected with grain growing in the dominion.

(a) Wheat.

In 1908 the area under wheat was 193,031 acres for threshing, and 858 acres for chaff, ensilage, etc. The yield was 28·84 bushels per acre against 27·18 in the preceding year.

(b) Oats.

The area sowed for grain in 1908 was 386,885 acres. This showed an increase of about 35,000 acres over the preceding year.

The average yield per acre in 1908 was 38·82 bushels. In 1907 it was 31·83.

In addition to the area sown for grain there were 294,638 acres sown for stock-feeding, ensilage, etc.

(c) Barley.

The total area sown in 1908 was 41,235 acres. Of this area 36,177 acres were sown for threshing, the yield being 32·15 bushels per acre.

(d) Maize.

This has become a crop of considerable importance. The area sown for grain in 1908 was 8,869 acres. The average yield per acre was 56·74 bushels.

A considerable area is also sown in Rye. The increase in 1908 over 1907 was approximately 1,100 acres.

As regards root crops, it may be said that potatoes, turnips, rape, kale, mangolds, and carrots are grown in largely increasing quantities with great success.

As pastoral farming increases, so will the areas devoted to the growth of what is necessary for the feeding of stock.

AN ELECT DEPARTMENT

New Zealand being particularly suited for grazing purposes the area of sown grass lands is rapidly increasing.

Pastoral farming has received in the past and continues to receive an enormous amount of attention on the part of those occupied in grazing and rearing stock.

The Government is also taking the greatest care that every information shall be supplied to those engaged in this important industry. They moreover take every step to ensure that freedom from disease shall be secured as far as possible and that dairy farming shall be carried out under conditions which will secure to the consumer of its products immunity from disease caused by disregard of necessary precautions. Enormous sums are spent annually in procuring the best strains of blood and thus obtaining for the dominion the distinction of being in the foremost rank of pastoral countries.

Dairy farming has developed enormously during the past twenty years and is now one of the principal industries, thanks chiefly to co-operation on the part of the farmers.

The increase in land cultivated, stock held, and other cognate information on the results of the past ten years is shown in a convenient form in an Appendix.

Under the Department of Agriculture there are also many industries which are of growing importance to the State, but which can only be briefly alluded to. Bee culture, viticulture, horticulture, poultry-keeping, hop-culture, flax-grading and culture, and many others receive the continuous attention of the department. Inspectors are ever on the alert to see that the strictest attention is paid to the regulations in regard to preparing produce for the market, and instructors diligently aid the people in conducting the various industries on economical and scientific lines.

There are eight experimental farms under the control

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

of a director. At each of these every branch of work connected with agriculture, the treatment and rearing of live-stock, and the industries just mentioned is most thoroughly dealt with, the experiments made being most carefully recorded for the benefit of the public. The growth of sugar-beet is receiving considerable attention as providing the possible groundwork of an industry of great importance.

Last but not least, a school for the practical instruction of young farmers has been established. The amount of information contained in the yearly report of the Department of Agriculture is enormous, and shows the great importance that is attached to giving sound teaching on all matters connected with the land.

There is scarcely a page in this Report that does not teem with information of the highest value to farmers. Experiments in the laboratory and the field ; descriptions of the various insect pests and how they should be dealt with ; details regarding the perfect animal and the imperfect, no matter of what class, and how to treat the diseases affecting them—in fact, every practical point is touched on in the volume. Besides this Report the Department issued upwards of a quarter of a million pamphlets last year, and all at the public expense. It was wise policy on the part of the State to supply gratuitously information of such a valuable kind. The Department exercises its functions with great tact and discretion, and this is fully recognized by those who are brought in contact with it. From what has been said, it may be gathered that the white man has turned to good account the land he has occupied, has made amends for any harm he has done, and is ready to more fully develop the resources of what once was apparently almost useless country.

CHAPTER II

LAND SYSTEM

TERMS of Constitution Act of 1852—Proportions of area owned at present day by the State, the white settler, and the Maori—Method of disposing of Crown Lands—The improved farm settlement—The Village Settlement—Maori Lands Administration Act.

Now that we have seen what the country was like when first it came under British rule in 1840 and how it now appears, let us look for a moment at the terms upon which possession of it was given in 1852 to the small community of white people under the Constitution Act of that year.

The word "given" has been used advisedly, for although the General Assembly established by the Act was merely empowered to regulate the sale of waste lands of the Crown in New Zealand the whole proceeds were to be retained as revenue. The Assembly had not to account to the Home Government for one penny received or to refund any of the considerable sums that had been expended upon the colony in earlier days.

There was a stipulation that the New Zealand Company, which had bought large tracts of land from the natives, should be paid a certain sum for the land that the new Colonial Government now took over from them. There was a further stipulation that no private individual could buy land from the natives, but that the Government alone might do so.

No attempt was made by the old country to exact either present or future payment from the new. The right of possession of whatever land in New Zealand was then vested in the Crown was to all intents and purposes freely given to this miniature new community entirely for its own benefit. Whatever the colonists might thenceforth choose to do with their own, it was clear

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

that from the very first there would be no interference by the Mother Country.

It must not be supposed that this gift of the "waste lands of the Crown" in any way affected the immense area of land recognized by the Crown as being in the ownership of the Maori. Nor did it affect land that the Crown had recognized as freehold in the hands of white settlers, whether that land had been bought direct from the natives with the subsequent sanction of the Crown, or whether it had been bought from the Colonial Government of the period between 1840 and 1852.

The rights and liabilities of private citizens with regard to land in New Zealand, just as with regard to their movable property were, and still are, governed by the laws of England as existing on the 14th of January, 1840, "so far as applicable to the circumstances of the colony." Great alterations have been made by colonial legislation, but that rule still holds good otherwise.

Those colonial statutes that are commonly spoken of as the "Land Laws" are in reality only those that are little more than "Conditions of sale," under which the Colonial Government of the day can dispose of communal land, or to use the more common expression, "Crown lands," either for ever as freehold or for a term of years as leasehold.

To go back to the "waste land of the Crown," or "Crown lands," handed over to the colonists by the Constitution Act. It is difficult now to find out exactly what area was transferred in 1852 and what its then value was. What was purchased from the New Zealand Land Company must not be taken into account. The value of this land when cut down to £200,000 was no doubt what it would have fetched again in the open market even at that time.

As has been stated already, Governor Hobson, after the Treaty of Waitangi in 1840, granted the Maori an

WASTE LANDS OF THE CROWN

indefeasible title to almost the whole area of New Zealand, ignoring all but a small fraction of the purchases which many of the settlers claimed to have made from the Maori before that time.

The Colonial Government held no land but what it had honourably bought from the Maori at what was then a fair value, however small it may seem to us now.

The grants from the Home Government for the purchase of land from the natives had been trifling, but by 1852 a great area had been bought from them and had become "waste lands of the Crown." The whole of the South Island, with but few natives in it, was secured, and considerable tracts in the North Island as well, but what the area was it is difficult now to ascertain with any degree of certainty.

Apparently up to 1908 no less than 28,500,000 acres had been bought by the Government from the natives since 1840, but what proportion was bought before 1852 and at what price cannot now be discovered. Nor yet can the total sum that has been received for Crown lands sold since 1852 and treated as revenue.

The official *Year Book of 1908* estimates the value of Crown lands in hand and unsold in 1906 at about 19,000,000, but added to this should be the value of other Crown lands that have not been sold but which passed at that date into the hands of public bodies for public uses, viz., to local educational and church authorities, about £14,000,000. These figures show the value created by the influx and labour of colonists upon land which without them would have remained with no appreciable value at all amongst the Maori.

The use of the word "gift" with reference to the Crown lands handed over to the colonists in 1852 implies value of some degree, however small at the moment, but that the value was in reality not great in those days we need not stay to consider. To-day the colonists number

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

960,000 and the Maori only 47,000 all told. In 1851, according to Sir George Grey's estimate, the Maori numbered about 120,000, a very large proportion of whom were males capable of bearing arms. The colonists only numbered 26,000, and even then did not form one compact colony, but nine widely separated little colonies scattered along some 900 miles from north to south. Communication by land existed only between three of these settlements, and that for men on horseback only and not for wheel traffic. The largest of these scattered colonies only numbered 9,000, and out of the total of 26,000 colonists probably only 7,000 were adult males and few even of those had been trained to arms.

There was little intercourse even by sea, for each little colony found it best to trade directly with Australia. Of external help quickly available there was none.

The South Island taken by itself was comparatively safe from native conquest, for the colonists in that island, though widely scattered, still out-numbered the even more widely scattered Maori.

In the North Island the state of the colonists was still perilous, and, as history shows, became more so as time went on. From these facts we can see how the ownership of the land, public or private, was looked upon both by giver and receiver in 1852. It was a risky undertaking by brave men who were left to be their own masters and to work out their own salvation. No step backward was possible, no undoing what was done. Under no conceivable circumstances would the Constitution Act be repealed.

As a hard fact stripped of all sentiment, the active control by Great Britain over the islands of New Zealand ceased from the moment of the royal assent to the Act of the British Parliament granting a Constitution to New Zealand. The machinery of the dying Crown Colony kept on running smoothly in the interim, but from the

MANY EXPERIMENTS

completion of its first election the little Parliament of New Zealand became omnipotent as possessors of the land.

The proportions of the country's area owned to-day by the State, by the white settler, and the Maori respectively is the next point to be considered.

Of the 66,500,000 acres of the islands of New Zealand, the official *Year Book for 1908* states that on 31st March, 1906, 18,500,000 acres had become freehold in the hands of private owners in addition to small freeholds of town lands worth about £66,000,000, the area of which, however, is not stated. The area sold as freehold up to March, 1908, was under 15,000,000 acres ; out of a total of nearly 34,000,000 acres sold, or let upon leaseholds of a permanent character or finally disposed of. Seven million five hundred thousand acres thus remain still for disposal. The areas sold and in hand made up 41,500,000 acres, which, deducted from the 66,500,000 acres already referred to, leaves 15,000,000 acres of "native land" still remaining in their hands and valued at a little under £10,000,000.

For the moment all the many experiments—and there have been about threescore—in the making of laws dealing with the sale or lease of the land of the State have ended in one consolidated statute, "The Land Act of 1908."

Judging by past experience it is quite possible that before long the legislators of the dominion will have deemed it right to amend that Act, so easy is it to find flaws in one so elaborate. To be safe as to what the Land Laws for the day really are it is as necessary to turn to each new volume of the statutes as it is for the Englishman to make sure that he has got hold of the railway time-table for the current month.

It is claimed for the Dominion Government that the great aim of the State in its disposal of Crown lands is to make as great a number as possible of the people the actual and direct producers of food from those lands.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The catch-phrase is "The land for the people," which seems to be another way of saying that "No man shall own land" unless he lives upon it and works it to the uttermost of its capacity.

The prices for Crown lands offered for sale or lease are, as a rule, fixed at a low figure so as to attract buyers or tenants. The indirect benefit to the State by settlement of the country and tillage of the soil is thought to outweigh whatever slight loss there may be of present revenue. Another point is worthy of note in this Land Law. In the old days there were greater opportunities given to the rich man to acquire land than there were to those not so favourably circumstanced. The State had not made any provision to prevent a capitalist from acquiring a large tract of land for ever as freehold. Advantage was naturally taken of this omission and wide stretches of country were therefore bought by a few.

Meanwhile, these great estates paid the lucky owners so well as sheep-runs that agriculture in any extended form was neglected. A few "station-hands" did the little work that was required. Thus for a generation or more the greater part of the land in the colony that was fit for the plough was kept in its primitive state, and there was little room for the small settler or farmer.

That there was no desire to attract the capitalist to the exclusion of the small settler cannot be denied. Money however was necessary, and land had to be sold to obtain revenue. The declared aim of Sir George Grey in fixing the freehold price of Crown land in the Province of Nelson at an eighth part of what it was in the adjoining Province of Canterbury, was to give the poor man a chance of getting an acre of freehold land for five shillings. With a want of foresight that now seems downright folly Sir George attached no restriction as to the area that might be bought at this tempting price.

THE GOVERNMENT STEPS IN

The natural result followed. A few men with a few thousands hurried over from other colonies and took up not merely square-miles but several miles square in freehold, not troubling themselves about the trifling waste of river-beds or mountain tops, but taking the lot with all faults. Their shrewd and prompt speculations enriched them or their descendants enormously. Was it their business to think of other people? Must we not own that had we ourselves been in their position with snug savings or lucky windfalls lying idle we should have done exactly the same?

A generation of this state of things led to evils that were bound to come. Sons of the landless of the early days of the colony were growing up, and immigrants with land-hunger were pouring into the colony. The remaining area of good Crown land suitable for small freeholds was limited. In many cases owners of land would not sell again except at a price that would leave but a poor reward for a buyer's labour. All the modern facilities of land on terms or on lease from the Crown had not been thought of or certainly not carried through.

No Crown land was left for sale except in outlying parts of the colony many miles inland, and much of it was bush land and cut off from the towns and all settlement by the want of the ordinary means of communication. This land, therefore, was practically of no use until roads and bridges had been constructed.

The first thing to be done was to prevent more big blocks of land from being acquired either as freeholds or leaseholds. This was taken in hand by the Legislature and duly accomplished. Then the Government, acting upon the principle that the welfare of the community was the supreme law, considered it would be justifiable not only to give the State power to buy back some of the freeholds by mutual agreement, but even to empower the State to take back compulsorily what it had sold. Provision was

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

of course made for giving monetary compensation to the ejected owners.

This important step was taken by the Government at the instigation of John Mackenzie, then Minister of Lands. Sixteen years' experience of the working of it has proved its efficiency.

Owing to the many reforms contained in the Act of 1892, of which perhaps the Crown lease is the most important, men of small capital have been able to take up land and become prosperous settlers. Owing also to the acquisition of private estates under the powers already mentioned, and dividing them into moderate-sized farms, many of those anxious to acquire land and begin life on their own account, have been able to do so without undertaking any of the risks appertaining to pioneering. A further advantage has been gained by this procedure, as the settlers, many of whom are unskilled, are able to obtain assistance in carrying out the necessary farming operations.

The compulsory taking of land by the State, or rather a deputing of the power to take, has been common enough in the old country ever since the making of canals and railways made it an unavoidable necessity. Thus the land tenure of the past has been ended by gentle degrees in the dominion, and so thoroughly that some critics venture to say that the State has gone too far the other way. Six hundred and forty acres is the top limit of "first-class rural land" that one man can take up direct from the State.

A theory practically adopted, though not explicitly stated, in one of the systems of land-leasing by the Crown is that the land itself belongs for ever to the State, but the buildings on it and betterments generally belong to the man who made them. The system that goes upon this principle is an adaptation of the "Glasgow lease" and provides for a lease of the land being renewable every

SMALL FARMERS PROVIDED FOR

thirty-three years, the period taken being the average length of a generation, with re-valuation of rent at each renewal. If, however, no renewal is sought a valuation is made of the betterments and the new tenant has to hand over the amount before entrance.

Yet another principle is recognized and provided for, namely : the principle of co-operation. The "Small Farm Associations" were devised and first started in 1892 and succeeded well for a time, but another more attractive system quickly followed, namely, the "improved farm settlement," and that has now superseded to a large degree the co-operative idea, although not so as to render the latter absolute.

A "Small Farm Association" can be formed when not less than a dozen men have joined together for mutual help, they can then choose a block of land of not over 11,000 acres, but there must be a man to each 200 acres of the block, and no one man can hold over 320 acres. The tenure is by renewable lease with conditions as to living on the land and working it.

The advantages of this system are many so long as the block of country is wisely chosen regarding its quality, distance from market or port, and the chances of the owner being able to find employment within easy distance of his home.

New Zealand has an enormous area of arable land, and unhappily there is but little Crown land left unsold that is fit for a "Small Farm Association."

The "improved farm settlement" was first passed as an emergency scheme to meet the "unemployed" difficulty. It was tried upon bush land first, contracts were made with those about to settle on the land for felling and burning the trees and undergrowth, and for sowing the land afterwards with grass-seed. The State pays the worker something on account as the clearing goes on, and in due time he finds himself the holder of

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

a renewable lease at a rent that will leave him a fair margin in return for his work.

Another settlement system is the " Village Settlement " within which even less than an acre of land can be had, the intention of the Legislature being to give workmen a chance of getting a home of their own close to their work and a piece of land not too large for them to improve in their spare time. Although this opening has been offered for some years it has not proved so attractive as was expected when first started.

More tempting rewards have been offered to the man who will undertake the severe toil of turning either bush or swamp land into good open and solid land fit for grazing or tillage. In proportion to the nature of the land and the time and labour necessary to make it productive which must vary widely, so the Land Law offers greater or less rewards for its clearing and draining respectively and a sliding scale as it were of time and rent. Lands under this heading are classified into heavy bush land, light bush land, or swamp land, and " scrub " land. In the first category, as soon as the first half-year's rent is paid, no more rent is exacted for an interval of four years, and the land is tax-free. In the case of light bush land the rent-free period is three years, and for swamp land the residence clause is not enforced for five years; as regards the third class (scrub land) the rent-free time is two years. Even this liberal treatment can be bettered, for another part of the Act gives the Land Board power to give a ten-year rent-free period in leases of land not likely to be immediately productive.

Mention has already been made of the stop put to the sale of large blocks of freehold land to one man, and now the upward limit of freehold that the Crown will sell to one man is 5,000 acres of third-class land, 2,000 acres second-class, and 640 first-class. These figures apply only to rural lands which again form the third of the three

CLASSIFYING THE LAND

classes into which all Crown lands of every description are divided, viz. :—

First-class land. Town and village lands, the upset prices of which are respectively not less than £20 and £3 an acre ; such lands are sold by auction or leased for ten or thirty-three years at a rent of 5 per cent. on the value of the freehold.

Second-class land. Suburban land, the upset price of which may not be less than £2 an acre ; these lands are also sold by auction, or let as above.

Third-class land. Rural land, which may be disposed of at not less than £1 an acre for first-class, 10s. for second, and 2s. 6d. for third ; such lands may be sold or leased by auction, or sold or leased on application.

Although the upward limit of the area of freeholds and of leaseholds for settlement has been fixed in the manner stated above, the area that may be let to one man for purely pastoral purposes is of necessity far greater. It must be remembered that a large part of the dominion consists of high mountains, wide river beds, and of other rough land so poor that it takes several acres of such land to keep a single sheep, and five times as much to keep one head of cattle all the year round.

Many miles of fencing have to be put up before such country can be profitably used as “run country,” and the cheapest fencing costs roughly £65 a mile ; stockyards must follow, and then wool-shed and homestead. No acreage limit is fixed, but no more land will be let for run-holding than will carry 20,000 sheep or 4,000 head of cattle. The term fixed is twenty-one years and the rent is arrived at by putting the lease up to auction.

For the purpose of fixing certain terms of the lease, runs are divided into two classes, one class containing those which are only fit to carry over 5,000 sheep and the other consisting of those runs that would be fit for

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

sub-division into areas of under 5,000 acres that could be let either as small runs or cut up for settlement. Leases of the former class cannot be resumed by the Crown, the other can be so taken back at a year's notice without compensation.

The rule is that no one can hold more than one run unless the Land Board and Minister of Lands give special leave for special reasons. Runs are put up to auction, and the rent is payable half-yearly in advance ; nothing but grazing rights are let, and the run-holder has no right to the soil, timber, or minerals, and if the Government should let, sell, or make a reserve of any part of the run in the run-holders' lease.

The run-holder has, moreover, to prevent the burning of timber except in certain cases, and in open country he has to keep down gorse, broom, and sweetbriar, and last but not least, rabbits.

If at the end of the twenty-one years the Government decides not to let the run again as such, the run-holder may pull down the fences and buildings he has put up, and take them away, if he thinks it worth while to do so.

The only other two special systems of lease that remain to be mentioned are the "wood-pulp" and "flax" leases, both of which provide specially for the encouragement of the working of those industries, and thus far has the ingeniousness of the dominion legislation gone for the development and welfare of the country.

There are still one or two matters which must be mentioned in connection with the land system. First, we will take certain legislation. Under the "National Endowment Act, 1907," seven million acres was set apart as a permanent endowment for the purposes of education and old-age pensions. Certain conditions in regard to an additional endowment by reason of dealing with land under "renewable leases" and "grazing runs" permit the raising of the national endowment to 9,000,000

A NATIONAL ENDOWMENT

acres. When this area is reached no more Crown lands will become part of the national endowment.

The fee simple of all the lands so set apart can never be parted with by cash sale, or by occupation with right of purchase. Seventy per cent. of the revenue is to be applied to education and thirty per cent. to old-age pensions.

Another important measure is the "Maori Lands Administration Act, 1900." This is intended to prevent the natives from pauperising themselves by parting with the freehold of the balance of their lands.

It provides for the prohibition of any further alienation of the freehold of native lands either to the Crown or private purchasers. The "Maori Land Settlement Act" placed the power of dealing with their lands in the hands of the Maori owners through special boards. It amended the Act just before referred to by restoring to the Crown the right of purchasing Maori land in certain specified districts.

Secondly, mention must be made of the mode in which Crown lands can be acquired. There is an optional system of selection.

(a) Freehold; (b) occupation with the right of purchase; (c) renewable lease.

In the case of (a).

If the land is surveyed, one-fifth of the purchase money must be paid down when the application is granted, and the balance within thirty days; if not surveyed, then the survey fee as a deposit and the balance within thirty days of notice that the survey has been completed.

In the case of (b).

Lands selected on this tenure are held under a licence for twenty-five years. At any time after ten years and before the expiration of the licence, if the lessee

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

has resided on the land and made certain improvements he can acquire the freehold at the upset price of the land. The rent is five per cent. on the cash price of the land.

In the case of (c).

Lands selected on this tenure are leased for sixty-six years, with a perpetual right of renewal for further terms of sixty-six years, subject to certain conditions as to residence and improvements.

The rental is four per cent. on the cash price of the land. There is not at any time a right to purchase the freehold.

Residence implies the erection of a habitable house to be approved of by the Board. There are also certain conditions as to the period of residence.

CHAPTER III

LAND DISTRICTS

DIVISION of land districts—Agricultural industries of Auckland—Hawke's Bay—Wellington—Taranaki—Marlborough—Westland—Canterbury—Otago—Southland.

FOR purposes of Crown land administration the dominion is divided into ten districts, four in the North Island and six in the South Island. Each of these is presided over for the above purpose by a Commissioner of Crown Lands who is an official under the control of the Lands Department of the general government.

The North Island districts are : Auckland, Hawke's Bay, Taranaki, and Wellington. Those in the South Island are Marlborough, Nelson, Westland, Canterbury, Otago, and Southland.

The officers in charge of the work in each of these districts have, as will have been inferred from the description of the land system, onerous positions. Their great knowledge of the respective areas in which they exercise their powers makes their opinion of the resources of those areas extremely valuable.

It will be well to take the districts in succession, commencing with that which is the most northern.

The Auckland land district covers an area of 13,858,000 acres and extends from 34° 30' to 39° south latitude.

It will be seen on looking at the map that a very large portion of the North Island is embraced in this district. As would naturally be expected, there is but little range of temperature in the long narrow stretch of country north of the city of Auckland, on account of the sea breezes. The temperature generally is very even. Stretching as this district does over such a large area it will easily be understood what various classes of soil are

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

to be found. Rich alluvial, barren pipe clay, volcanic, ordinary clay, and rich black soil over limestone are found in the various parts. There is also a large amount of pure pumice country.

The only good Crown lands remaining in this district are covered with bush.

The Kauri forests are in this district, and one of the principal industries is in connection with the digging and export of the gum.

North of a line drawn from Hokianga to the Bay of Islands the gum-digger and the small farmer and fruit-grower eke out a living. Coming down south from there, as far as Auckland City, grapes, oranges, lemons and many English fruits do exceedingly well. Wheat does fairly well and maize gives a large return. Sheep do fairly well.

South of Auckland as far as the boundaries of the district there is a large area suitable for both agricultural and pastoral pursuits. All cereals are successfully grown—maize especially so.

Potatoes give a large yield. Sheep farming is in a prosperous condition, but the district cannot in comparison with many others be considered a great sheep country. Dairy farming is very successfully carried out. The largest amount of gold in the dominion is raised in this district in which is situated the celebrated Maihi Mine.

HAWKE'S BAY

The Hawke's Bay District extends from Cape Turnagain in the south to a point thirty miles beyond East Cape. It has an average depth from the coast of forty-five miles and contains about six million acres. The climate is generally mild and the winters are perfectly delightful. In the summer, however, the N.W. winds are sometimes very trying, as the moisture has been taken out of them in passing over the Ruahine range.

Sheep-farming is undoubtedly the principal industry

A RICH DISTRICT

of the district. Both soil and climate are suitable for sheep-breeding and grazing, and that class of farming is particularly profitable. Over 3,000,000 acres are sown in English grasses. The soil varies considerably throughout this large district, but very rich areas are to be found in various parts, notably the Heretaunga Plain immediately south of the town of Napier, and the plains in Poverty Bay in which is situated the town of Gisborne. Some of the very best grazing country is to be found on the limestone hills which run through the country here and there. It must not be thought because pastoral pursuits form so large a part of the farming that the soil is not suitable for agriculture. Some of it is remarkably good for root crops and excellent grain can be grown.

The Poverty Bay District is celebrated for the high class of rye grass seed obtained. Dairy farming is now occupying a great deal of attention, especially in the bush districts, on account of the rich pasture obtained after the trees are felled and burned.

The country is on the whole well watered. What are called droughts are often experienced, but they must not be taken as approaching in any way to those that occur in Australia. There are still about 230,000 acres of Crown lands yet to be disposed of. Of this area about one quarter is fit for agriculture and the remainder is suitable for grazing, principally by sheep.

WELLINGTON

The Wellington District lies between the parallels of 39° and 41° 30' south latitude. The area is about 6,810,960 acres. It has a coast-line extending from Cape Turnagain on the east round the southernmost part of the island and then sweeping away to the north-west until it reaches the Patea River. From that river down to within about thirty miles of the City of Wellington for a width of fifteen miles the country is level or

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

undulating. This part of the country is noted throughout the dominion for its suitability for pastoral pursuits. A great deal of this land was originally open, though the southern part was in some places covered with bush.

To the eastward the main range is the Wairarapa Plain, containing about 200,000 acres of agricultural land, of which much is good. Some of it, however, is inferior. This district is essentially a bush country. Out of its total area about 3,000,000 acres are still standing bush containing much valuable timber. A good deal of this is at present inaccessible, but the country is being rapidly opened up and will become the centre of a large saw-milling industry.

This land district contains a greater quantity of good land than any other in the North Island, some of it being of the finest quality.

When once this country is cleared and burnt, it will provide some of the finest pasturage in the dominion. It takes however some fifteen years before the bush country can be brought under the plough. The climate is healthy and mild and the country is not subject to any long periods of exceptionally dry weather. There is a considerable area of native land in this district.

The pastoral industry is by far the most important, but there is a large amount of agriculture in suitable localities.

As would naturally be expected in a district of such great pastoral value, dairy farming is extensively carried on.

Owing to the large tracts covered in flax the industry in connection with that fibre is a most important one. The country being so greatly covered in bush give a great impetus to saw-milling.

TARANAKI

The Taranaki Land District embraces an area of about 2,430,000 acres, and is generally speaking extremely

DAIRY-FARMING AND GRAZING

fertile. It has a coast-line extending from the Patea River round Cape Egmont to the westward and then turning north until it reaches the Mōkan River on the west coast.

Round Mount Egmont for a radius of about twenty miles the soil is volcanic and varies a good deal in quality. There are also areas over which papa, a calcareous blue clay, and limestone are widely distributed. Soil of a somewhat volcanic nature is however principally to be found throughout this district. A stretch of very fertile country to the south-west of the capital (New Plymouth) of this district is called the Waimate Plains. It has an area of about 25,000 acres, of which 13,500 are in European occupation, the remainder being a native reserve. It was on these plains that the trouble with the natives under Te Whiti took place which has been alluded to elsewhere. Taranaki is almost entirely devoted to grazing and dairying, but there is a considerable area suitable for agriculture. Where the latter is carried on it is principally confined to green and root crops.

The climate is healthy and equable and there is a considerable rainfall.

Attention must now be turned to the South Island, and as before the most northern district will first be touched upon.

The Marlborough Land District occupies the north-east corner of this island and contains about 2,800,000 acres. The land may be divided into three classes—open land, bush land, and land partly covered with bush, scrub and fern. More than half the area of this district is devoted to sheep-grazing. There are, however, very many acres admirably suited to agriculture. Good crops of wheat, oats and barley are obtained from this class of land which is spread over many parts of the district.

The principal agricultural land is on the Wairau Plain,

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

which contains about 65,000 acres. The town of Blenheim, the capital of the district, is situated on these plains. Much of the land is good and particularly so on the flats in the main valleys. Here it may be described as rich.

Some of the grazing-land, however, is not of a high class. The climate of this land district is mild and equable. Part of it was originally covered with dense bush, but the timber was not of a nature particularly suitable for saw-milling. There are, however, a few saw-mills at work. The other industries are few and unimportant.

There are about 225,000 acres of Crown lands available for settlement, though about 120,000 of these are of poor quality.

The Nelson Land District comprises the country at the north-west corner of the South Island and has an area of 7,322 square miles. The larger part of it is mountainous, but notwithstanding that fact a fair proportion is suitable for agricultural and pastoral farming. There are valleys and plains where the former pursuit will in the future be the occupation of a great number of people. The two most notable plains are the Waimea and the Marnia. The former of these, in which stands the City of Nelson, is covered with farms and orchards. The Marnia and many of the other plains have generally speaking a good soil, some of which is even rich. There is also good and fertile soil in many of the valleys. There are rich river flats here and there throughout the district. Originally the country was almost entirely bush. There yet remain about 3,000,000 acres of Crown land to be disposed of. Half of this is suitable for pastoral purposes; about 418,000 acres for mixed farming, and nearly 900,000 for forest, climatic, and other purposes. The remainder is made up of barren mountain tops. The climate is perhaps almost the best in the dominion. Hop-growing was at

A GOLD-MINING COUNTRY

one time a very prosperous industry, but the area under cultivation is not now so large as formerly. This may be accounted for by the ravages committed by the red spider and the low price of the product.

Dairying is gradually being taken up. The climate of Nelson is particularly favourable for fruit-growing and very large quantities are produced.

Gold-mining is one of the industries and Nelson comes fourth in the list of districts producing that metal. Coal mining is very prosperous, as from the mines at Westport in the south-west corner there was the largest output in the dominion in 1907. There are many sawmills and the industry has assumed large proportions.

The Westland Land District has a coast-line of about 225 miles and contains about 6,750 square miles. Its eastern boundary is the magnificent range called the Southern Alps, the western the Pacific Ocean. The principal industry is gold-mining and the whole district is proclaimed a gold-field. Coal-mining comes next in importance. Generally speaking, the whole district is covered with dense bush of which some of the timber is valuable and saw-milling consequently flourishes. Along the coast, up the slopes of the lower hills, and in the bottom of the valleys, there is a considerable stretch of grass country suitable for pastoral farming. There is also a large portion suitable for certain sorts of agriculture, such for instance as growing root crops. The dairy industry has to some extent gained a foothold.

There are 796,000 acres of Crown lands available for settlement under the various forms of tenure. Much of the land, even the lower slopes of the mountains, has fairly good soil. Alluvial areas and land of a limestone formation are found here and there. The rainfall is very heavy, averaging 112 inches, and therefore there is not much scope for agricultural pursuits.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The Canterbury Land District is about 220 miles in length from north-east to south-west, and has an average width of seventy miles from its western boundary, the Southern Alps, to its eastern, the Pacific Ocean. The length of coast-line is about 300 miles. The total area is 9,604,405 acres, out of which some 516,000 are bush land. The land may be classed as follows : First-class, a little more than 2,000,000 acres ; second-class, about 5,200,000 ; the remainder being either barren or of little value. The soil varies much in character. That of the Alpine district needs no mention. The lower ranges and hills, and much of the table-lands, together with a portion of the plains, are suitable for growing grass and for the pastoral country. The agricultural portion of the district is in its northern and southern extremities and on the Canterbury Plains. The value of these plains has been much increased by the system adopted of supplying water over the driest parts. The total area benefited is 1,182,060 acres, the amount of water distributed during twenty-four hours being 254,157,160 gallons. Rich alluvial tracts are found here and there over this wide expanse of country. In Banks' Peninsula the soil is rich volcanic. This land district contains the largest wheat area in the dominion. Oats, barley, and green crops of every description are moreover extensively cultivated. It also has a great quantity of pastoral land. The number of sheep carried in 1907 was only exceeded in one district—Wellington. Other live stock in great numbers are carried in this district. In some parts, notably on Banks' Peninsula, dairy farming is largely engaged in. Fruit-growing is also occupying a great deal of attention and the trade will probably be considerably developed. Owing to the sheep-breeding and grazing industry being of such great dimensions, another one has arisen from it, large freezing works having been established. One product from these works, Canterbury lamb, is widely

A PASTORAL TERRITORY

distributed and much appreciated in the Mother Country.

Upwards of 3,000,000 acres of Crown lands have been disposed of for cash and more than 4,000,000 under different forms of tenure from the State.

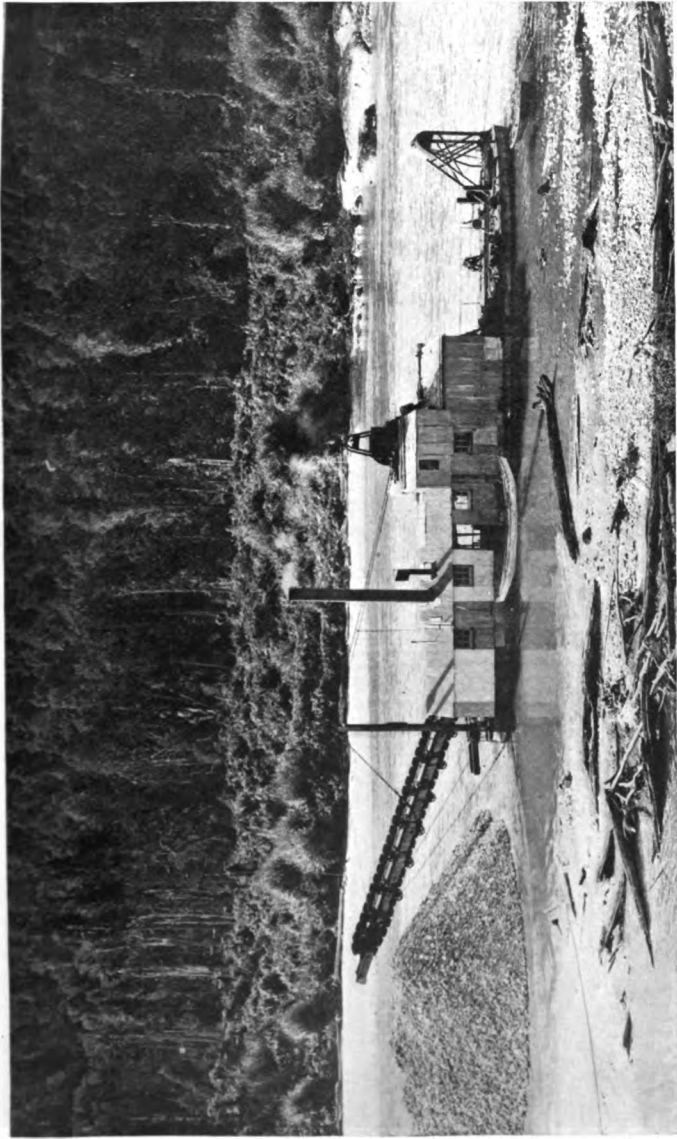
The Otago Land District stretches from the west coast to the east and has an area of about 9,000,000 acres. The open land covers 11,307 square miles; the forest 2,210; and the lakes 262. The country generally is mountainous, but there are great stretches of rolling downs. The plains occupy a fair proportion of the district and some of them are very fertile. The bush land lies mostly on the sea-coast. The pastoral industry is one of the most prominent. There are large sheep-runs extending over a huge tract of country and also many pastoral farms. Agriculture, for which a great deal of the soil is particularly suitable, affords the principal occupation. Cereals of every description are grown largely and produce a good yield.

Dairy-farming is very flourishing and still expanding. The meat-freezing industry is one of considerable proportions. Gold-mining affords occupation to a great number of people, the output in this district being the second largest in the dominion.

The Southland Land District comprises the whole of the southern and south-western end of the island and also Stewart Island. The area is 7,583,892 acres, of which 500,000 are covered with bush. The fiord country is purely a mild Alpine region of no value to the agriculturist or pastoral farmer. There are large plain valleys which have rich and fertile alluvial soil. The open country of the interior and many of the lower hills carry in their native state a class of grass quite suitable for grazing sheep. Sheep farming is the principal industry of this district.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

At one time it was much retarded by the rabbit pest. This, however, is being markedly abated and a further development of the industry has become possible. The plains, valleys and lower hills are eminently suitable for all kinds of agriculture. The principal cereal grown is the oat. The yield is very high and there is generally plenty available for export. The principal industry being sheep-grazing, a large quantity of turnips and other root crops are grown. Dairy farming, as in other districts, is rapidly extending and receives a considerable amount of attention. Apples and small English fruits, such as gooseberries, currants and raspberries, grow well and produce large crops. Gold dredging also forms one of the industries. Flax-milling is also carried on to a considerable extent. Many sawmills are at work over the timber areas, but the district is not particularly suitable for the timber industry. The climate is cold in winter and genial during the summer months. Much rain falls at times in the south-western area. Much snow falls during the months of April and on to October in the interior of the district.



GOLD DREDGE, BULLER GORGE

CHAPTER IV

MINING

**MINING industry—Gold—Number of mines—Coal-mining—
Figures—Metals.**

THE development and progress of the dominion is no doubt due in a large extent to the mining industry. The very great mineral resources and the wealth expected to be realized by those who first embarked in bringing them to the surface was the starting point. In the really old days Australasia was looked upon as a place where digging for gold meant finding it. That fortunes were to be made without any trouble was the idea prevailing in the minds of many of those who planned to leave the old world for the new. Fortunes were made in some cases, but many were lost.

It was found that mining must be carried out on scientific lines, if any permanent good results were to be obtained. The spade, the pick and the bucket had to give way to modern appliances. It was found, moreover, that gold was not the only mineral that was worth extracting from the earth.

Gold, however, has always to the ordinary observer of events seemed the most attractive metal, and therefore remarks will first be made on that class of mining.

Gold is principally obtained in New Zealand from quartz reefs ; from the sand and gravels in the valleys and river beds of mountain ranges ; from the sea beaches on the west coast of the South Island, and from some of the river beds, principally those in Otago.

Alluvial mining was, on account of its simplicity, the form in which gold-mining first took place. The full value of the riches hidden in the earth could not be obtained in this way, and therefore quartz-mining was

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

resorted to. This method ensures a greater permanency to the industry than alluvial diggings could secure. The latter form of mining is, however, still one which is of great importance in districts where it is suitable and where water in sufficient quantity for hydraulic sluicing can be obtained.

For many years dredging the beds of rivers for gold was found to be a task beyond the powers of the gold seekers. The thirst for that metal, however, was so great that the engineering talent of the colony was at last able to overcome all obstacles, and gold dredging became possible.

But the difficulty of gaining all the gold in the river beds by means of bucket dredges on account of the hardness of the bottom, big boulders, etc., has somewhat depreciated the value of this form of mining. Other systems will, doubtless, take the place of that now prevailing. The number of dredges at work in 1907 was thirty-nine less than was the case in 1906.

For the purpose of rendering quartz-mining more effective in certain cases, arrangements were entered into by the Government for obtaining the rights of the Cyanide process of gold extraction. It would be unnecessary to describe here the various processes which are required. Suffice it to say, that every modern invention that is proved to be efficient for the purpose is at once taken advantage of.

The total number of gold-mines in 1907 was 9,138 as against 9,039 in the previous year. The quantity of gold exported in the year ended March 31st, 1908, was 524,195 oz., valued at £2,082,087. In the year ended March 31st, 1907, the quantity was 552,272 oz., valued at £2,220,517. The quantity exported from January, 1857, to March 31st, 1908, was 18,352,783 oz. of the value of £72,057,047. Auckland has throughout been the greatest gold-exporting district, Otago next, and Canterbury the third. The

MINERAL WEALTH

other districts are practically not worth mentioning in comparison with the above.

The total value of all mining produce from the year 1853 to the end of 1907 was £100,528,026.

Coal-mining will on account of the extent of the coal-measures in the dominion, especially on the west coast of the South Island, become a most important industry. The bituminous coal on the coast just mentioned is at all events equal in quality to coal of the same class in any part of the world.

The late Sir John Coode, in his presidential address to the Civil Engineers, said :—

“The bituminous coal on the west coast of the South Island of New Zealand is declared by engineers to be fully equal, if not superior, to the best description from any part of the world.”

As showing the increase in the quantity of coal raised during a period of nineteen years the following figures will be of interest. In the year 1878 the number of tons raised was 162,218. In the year 1907 it was 1,831,009. The consumption of coal in the dominion naturally increases considerably every year. In 1907 it was 1,999,968 tons. The amount of coal imported was 220,749 tons.

The number of coal-mines at work during the year 1907 was 173, employing 3,910 persons.

It is estimated that the average earnings per week of each person employed was £2 18s., or £156 16s. per year.

In addition to collieries belonging to companies and private persons there are two which are owned and worked by the State. One of these is about twenty-nine miles from Westport with which place it is connected by rail. This colliery contains coal of most excellent quality for both steam and household purposes. During the year 1907 it produced 35,436 tons. The other colliery is about five miles from Greymouth. It is also connected

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

by rail with a shipping port. It produced in 1907 205,337 tons.

The State has reserved a further area of considerable extent near this mine. The object of the State in establishing collieries of its own has been, to use official words, "to sell coal to the public at a price which is greatly to the advantage of the purchaser." Depots for coal have been established in some of the principal cities and towns and it is intended to extend the business.

This is another example of the State Socialism in which the dominion has embarked, but here again does the difference of circumstances between the old world and the new make comparisons unprofitable.

There are other varieties of metal-mining in existence in the dominion, such for instance as raising iron and copper ore, and dealing with the iron-sand deposits on the seashore on the west coast of both islands.

The two principal mining industries have been alone dealt with, but enough will have been said to show that mining is carried out with great energy and that the dominion possesses a great asset in the hidden treasures of the earth.

CHAPTER V

SEA FISHERIES

Prospects of local supply—Conditions of export—Oyster fisheries—Fish-hatcheries.

THERE is no doubt that on the coasts of New Zealand there are large fishing grounds of considerable value to which sufficient attention was not paid in years gone by. In countries which possess a large supply of fish suitable for food it is recognized that the judicious employment of capital and labour may establish a most important industry.

There are two matters, however, connected with this industry which require careful consideration before it can be embarked on with confidence. One of these is: "What are the prospects as regards local consumption?" the other is: "What will be the conditions as regards export?"

There does not seem to be a probability at present of establishing any considerable market for local supply, as the population is not sufficiently large. The possibility of developing an extensive export trade is not very great. To quote the words of the official *Year Book* of 1908, the smallest group of exports in respect to value is "The Fisheries."

There is some hope of an extension of trade, however, as the quantity exported in 1907 exceeded that in 1906 by 1,619 cwt. The total value of the export for 1906 was £18,067 and for 1907, £20,016.

With but few exceptions the flavour of the fish on the coasts of New Zealand does not compare favourably with that of those found in the English market, and although the export of cod to Australia is increasing there does not seem to be anything that foreshadows a possibility of a large general export trade arising.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

With a view to giving assistance to the development of the fishing industry the Government has for some years past carried out extensive trawling experiments round the coasts of New Zealand. The results are most interesting as showing that large quantities of valuable food fish are to be found. The experiments will, moreover, prove of great value to those who think of embarking in the fishing industry, as information regarding the most suitable localities for trawling are now available. The times at which the various classes of fish can be found in different waters has also been ascertained.

Oyster-fisheries are well established and the greatest care is exercised in the maintenance and working of the oyster-beds. In the North Island are found the rock oysters which are so remarkable for their delicate flavour. In old days licences were issued to private persons to take oysters. No care in picking the oysters was exercised by those who had the licences and the destruction of the beds only became a question of time.

In 1907 the Marine Department, exercising the powers given them under an Act passed in that year, took control of this matter. The picking is done by departmental officials, and systematic control of the oyster-beds has been established. This will result in saving to the dominion one of its valuable food supplies.

At the Bluff in the South Island, and off Stewart Island there is another class of oyster to be found. To many people these oysters are preferable to the rock description of the north.

The export of oysters from the Bluff, as well as the sale for consumption in New Zealand, gradually increases. The quantity of oysters taken from these southern beds and exported to Australia during the year 1907 was 419,800 dozen. Their value was £3,132. Those sold for consumption in the dominion amounted to 1,149,625 dozen, valued at £6,960.

INTRODUCING THE SALMON

The Marine Department has also established fish-hatcheries and is doing most excellent work in introducing various kinds of food fish which will be of great value.

Lobsters and crabs are being imported and one must hope that they will become acclimatized and find a permanent home in New Zealand. The introduction of the quinnat salmon has also been taken vigorously in hand by the department, and there is no doubt as to the ultimate success of the experiment.

Should this experiment have a successful result a trade may arise which will equal that of the Pacific Coast of New Zealand's sister dominion Canada.

CHAPTER VI

SHIPPING

TIME and trouble saved since introduction of steamers—Courtesy of present-day ships' masters—Description of vessels.

THE initiation of a regular and direct steam-service between England and New Zealand by the New Zealand Steamship Company in 1883 must be considered one of the most important trade developments that has taken place. The change from the old sailing-ship days prior to that date can scarcely be appreciated by any except those who journeyed between New Zealand and England when sailing-ships were in use. Under the most favourable circumstances of wind and weather the sailing ship voyage lasted for any time between seventy days and a hundred days or more. The monotony of the voyage was not broken by calling at any port unless stress of weather caused such serious disaster to the ship as to make that step necessary. The food was often indifferent and the cooking worse.

The mercantile marine of those days was not what it is now, and what may be called unfortunate incidents took place which would not now be possible.

Moreover, courteous and capable as were almost all the masters of the vessels of those days, there were some marked exceptions.

One hundred or more days at sea in a vessel commanded by a man wanting in tact and knowledge made life almost unbearable. Now all is changed, and travellers to New Zealand find themselves on board steamers which are well found, well equipped, and comfortable to the highest degree. Calls are made at ports on the way and everything is done for the comfort of the passengers. The days of the past seem really a dream—in some cases a nightmare.

COMFORTABLE TRAVELLING

Now the passenger vessels are fine steamers from 6,000 to 12,000 tons capable of maintaining an average speed of about 12½ knots. In the old days of what were called "wind jammers" the tonnage might be anything between 600 and 2,000 tons, and the rate of sailing might average seven knots on the voyage, if one was lucky.

If one turns to the coastal traffic of thirty-five years ago again one sees a marvellous change. In the old days small and slow vessels with more or less comfort, and now large, well-equipped and fast steamers travelling with the regularity of clock-work. The Union Steamship Company has, indeed, done much for New Zealand. The intercolonial and coastal traffic now leaves 'little if anything to be desired.

Who would have believed but a few years ago that one would be able to travel between New Zealand and Australia in a turbine steamer of 8,500 tons and 9,500 horse-power, and yet that can be done this very month, February, 1909. Moreover, a daily ferry service is carried each way between Wellington and Lyttelton in steamers of considerably over 2,000 tons.

Enough has been said here to show the rapid advance that has been made of late years in sea communication both within the dominion itself and with the outer world.

Statistics in connection with shipping have been placed in an Appendix.

CHAPTER VII

MANUFACTURES

**DEVELOPMENT of industries—Table of industries and wages—
Employment of labour—Mills and factories—Shops.**

THE rapid development of the industrial life of New Zealand is a striking instance of the energy with which it has set to work to provide for the wants of countries far away as well as for its own.

This is all the more striking when one remembers that the production of manufactures on a large scale is only the growth of comparatively few years. It is proposed here to deal more especially with that branch of industry, but it must not be forgotten that in New Zealand a "factory" is defined as a place where two or more persons work together at making articles for disposal wholesale or retail.

All places, therefore, where products of pastoral farming, such for instance as "frozen meat," are dealt with are included amongst factories.

The report of the Department of Labour presented to Parliament in 1908 has been drawn upon for the information given in these pages.

The number of factories in 1900 was 6,438; the number in 1908 was 11,586. The number of workers in the former year was 48,938; that in 1908 was 78,625, of which 60,893 were males and 17,732 females.

The most important industries, ranged in order of the amount of wages paid during 1907-8 and 1906-7, is shown on page 371.

From this it will be seen that there was an increase of nearly half a million pounds in the wages paid in the year 1907-8.

The amounts paid in the different trades vary of

370

MANY INDUSTRIES

INDUSTRIES. CLASS.	WAGES PAID DURING THE YEARS	
	1907-8	1906-7
Food	£ 1,015,700	£ 906,163
Wood working	935,336	853,021
Iron and Metal	896,057	828,425
Clothing	781,372	698,614
Printing and Stationery	325,746	315,904
Leather working	303,253	294,544
Flax and Fibre	199,189	151,313
Stone, Clay, and Mineral	187,532	170,741
Fellmongering	136,528	133,564
Light, Heat, and Power	123,016	110,222
Chemical and by-products.. .. .	65,522	64,616
Ship-building and repairing	61,727	56,061
Watch and Jewellery	42,892	39,679
Paper and Cardboard	16,164	14,360
Basket and Wicker.. .. .	15,879	13,822
Miscellaneous.. .. .	213,108	180,078
Totals	£5,319,019	4,831,037

course with the particular needs of each. It is stated, however, that there is a steady progress in food trades and that there has been a further introduction of gas-works and electrical works consequent on increased demands for power, light, and heating.

One of the most interesting features in connection with factories is that connected with the labour employed. It is shown that the ratio of employment of females to males is steadily decreasing. This may be accounted for in many ways, but it seems to point to one condition of affairs that may be considered satisfactory. That is that the prosperity of the people generally is becoming so great that the men are able to earn enough to provide for the wants of the members of the opposite sex dependent on them. The Secretary for Labour gives it as his opinion, and from his intimate knowledge of the conditions of trade

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

it may well be accepted, that there is a real dearth of manual labour. To quote his words :—

“ Either our industries, instead of expanding, must shrink and disappear, or workers to carry on those industries must be found.”

Of course both employers and workers give different reasons for this condition of affairs. On the one hand, the employers complain of the paucity of hands for work, hampering trade ; on the other, the workers deny the shortness of the labour supply and say that it is only an attempt on the part of the employers to introduce workers from abroad, and lower wages.

To take one particular manufacture as that holding the foremost place in importance would be wrong unless every fact in connection with it was fully considered and displayed. One cannot, however, refrain from instancing the woollen trade as being one of those which holds a very high position. The excellence of the manufactures turned out by the woollen mills has been publicly recognized by the numerous medals and awards granted at many of the most important of the world's exhibitions. A private individual, such as the writer, can only express his admiration of the various articles turned out by these mills, and his wonder that they are not more largely sought after outside the dominion.

Each provincial district has its mills, and there is a distinct rivalry between them as to the value of their products. Auckland, Hawke's Bay, and Wellington each claim one mill, Canterbury three, and Otago four.

It would answer no purpose to set forth here the number of factories for each description of article produced in the different provincial districts. A few, however, will be mentioned to point out where some of the principal industries find their best field of operation.

Printing and bookbinding establishments number 47



AOROA MILLS, NAIROA RIVER

AMMUNITION PROVIDED

in Auckland, 54 in Wellington, 37 in Canterbury, and 56 in Otago.

Furniture and cabinet-making establishments find their particular home in Auckland as there are 48 there, as against 40 in Wellington, 27 in Canterbury, and 23 in Otago.

Out of 218 factories connected with the working of metals, other than gold and silver, there are 67 in Auckland, 39 in Wellington, 33 in Canterbury, and 52 in Otago.

Of the twenty-nine agricultural-implement factories in the dominion the largest number may be found in Canterbury and Otago. This might be expected on account of the largest agricultural area in those districts. There are 11 in Otago, 9 in Canterbury, 2 in Wellington, 2 in Taranaki, 3 in Hawke's Bay, and 2 in Wellington.

Auckland holds premier place as regards ship and boat-building factories, as she can claim nineteen out of a total of thirty.

Speaking generally on this question it may be said the industries are fairly divided between the provincial districts. Preference is, of course, given to those in which the principal cities are situated. One of the chief industries as far as the colony is concerned must however be mentioned. The only ammunition factory in the dominion is situated in Auckland. It does not employ a large number of hands, but it makes almost all the small arm ammunition required for the colonial forces.

It is somewhat difficult to arrive at the value of the land, buildings, machinery and plant in use by the manufactories, but according to the official *Year Book* of 1908 it was £12,509,286 at the time of the census in 1906. Quoting again from the same source it appears that the total value of output of manufactures in 1905 was £23,444,235.

It may be interesting to quote some few details in

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

connection with the shops as they come under the laws regulating the conditions of the industrial life of the dominion.

The number of shops was 11,981 on 31st March, 1908. The number of shop-assistants employed was 20,302. The money paid in wages in shops was £1,675,302. This sum divided amongst the number of assistants just quoted gives an annual earnings' average of £82 10s.

PART VI

THE DOMINION AND ITS RELATION TO THE EMPIRE

CHAPTER I

LOYALTY AND IMPERIALISM

ATTACHMENT to the Mother Country—Three great expressions of loyalty—The Boer War.

THERE can be no doubt as to the attachment of New Zealand to the Mother Country. The most conspicuous manifestations of loyalty to the Crown during recent years were at the time of Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee, at the time of the Boer War in South Africa, and at the coronation of our present King.

On the first occasion, when the celebration took place in London of the completion of the sixtieth year of the reign of one of England's greatest sovereigns, the colony despatched a contingent of New Zealand troops—both Europeans and Maori—to join with those from all the other parts of the Empire in making one of the most striking ceremonial displays in the history of the world.

On the second occasion loyalty to the British Crown was given expression to in a manner worthy of the highest type of British-born subjects. The long hoped-for opportunity arose for proving that their loyalty was not purely a profession by word of mouth. Great Britain was about to be engaged in war for the first time for many years, and her colonial offspring promptly expressed their desire to give their aid to the Mother Country.

On the third occasion troops were despatched to join in the great historical pageant that took place in the heart of the Empire when Edward VII was crowned. In the contingent that left New Zealand at this memorable time were not only Europeans and Maori, but amongst

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

the former were to be found many who had already proved on active service their devotion to the British Crown.

On September 28th, 1899, the Right. Hon. Richard Seddon moved in the House of Representatives :—

“ That a respectful address be presented to His Excellency the Governor requesting him to offer to the Imperial Government for service in the Transvaal a contingent of mounted rifles ; and that in the event of the offer being accepted the Government be empowered to provide, equip, and despatch the force.”

In speaking to the motion Mr. Seddon, while emphasizing the fact that England was in the right in the steps she then felt herself compelled to take, spoke with much power on the duty of the colonies to stand by the motherland in times of stress ; that motherland to which they owed their freedom and their protection. He spoke of the patriotism and loyalty to the Crown which he felt sure existed in the hearts of all true lovers of freedom. To quote his own words :—

“ Wherever Britons live—wherever the British flag floats—there is freedom and there is justice and there are equal rights.”

Again he said :—

“ The war clouds look dark at the present moment ; they look almost at the point of bursting. I say that it is no time now to question the actions and decisions of the Imperial authorities ; it is our bounden duty to support them in the position they have taken up.”

This feeling of loyalty and patriotism was further emphasized by the leader of the opposition and all other prominent members of the House of Representatives. There were dissentients to the motion, but they spoke from a point of view which was in entire opposition to the general feeling of the country. The debate on the motion resulted in its being carried by 54 to 5. On the motion being agreed to the members rose and sang the National Anthem, and, led by the Premier, gave three resounding and hearty cheers for Her Majesty.

TRAFALGAR DAY

Those privileged to be present at the time will never forget the scene which, by its impressiveness, deeply touched the hearts of all.

Her late Majesty was graciously pleased to accept that offer, and on October 4th instructions were given by the Premier and Minister of Defence that preparations were at once to be made for the despatch of a mounted contingent.

On October 21st, the first out of ten contingents sailed for South Africa amidst the most remarkable exhibition of enthusiasm ever seen in the dominion.

The dominion, of course, was not prepared for the despatch over sea of bodies of troops. The necessity for such a thing could not possibly have been contemplated. No Parliament would have dreamt of voting moneys for procuring and maintaining in an efficient condition stores of clothing and equipments on the remote chance that they might some day be wanted. However, now that the despatch of the contingent was determined on, the matter had to be dealt with. A vessel suitable for use as a troopship had to be procured and fitted up both for men and horses ; the latter had to be bought ; the men enrolled and everything necessary for both men and horse equipment had to be obtained. In fact, every detail had to be seen to which was necessary for the despatch to the seat of war as quickly as possible of a body of mounted troops equipped according to the Imperial scale.

Tents, arms, ammunition, and a small amount of the personal equipments could be obtained from the Defence Stores, but everything else had to be procured by contract in the country. It can be imagined that some difficulty was experienced in getting ready in so short a time all that was required. All the uniforms had to be made after the officers and men arrived in camp. Material had to be procured from all parts of the dominion, as although khaki was coming into use for the volunteers no one

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

establishment was able to supply the necessary amount. Saddlery of an approved pattern had also to be procured from the trade throughout the country. Indeed, the same thing practically applied to every article required. However, through the patriotism and enthusiasm of all concerned, and by incessant work night and day, everything was ready on October 20th, for the embarkation of the troops, and on the following day, Trafalgar Day, the first contingent of colonial troops to land in South Africa left New Zealand.

It was little thought when those troops sailed that before long there would be many more called for. "The war will soon be over," was the generally expressed opinion by most of the people throughout the British dominions. However, that was not to be the case, and contingent after contingent was despatched to the seat of war. The total number of contingents sent was ten and the number of officers and men was 6,343, together with 6,491 horses. To the latter must be added a considerable number of remounts. Patriotic funds were raised throughout the dominion for equipping and providing horses and transport for some of the contingents that went to the seat of war.

The actual causes of the war were not matters which the New Zealanders considered to be any concern of theirs. Their desire was to be of some use to the Empire, to help it in its hour of need and to keep the British flag flying. There were at least twenty applicants for every vacancy in the contingents, and so great was the desire to serve the mother country that large numbers of the colonists went to South Africa by any means they could in order to be made use of in the fighting line.

As an instance of the patriotism displayed by the Queen's subjects in every part of the dominion it should be mentioned that £116 was sent by the people in Rarotonga as a contribution to the Patriotic Fund, and

AN IMPARTIAL OBSERVER

that one volunteer came over at his own cost from that island to serve in a contingent. Rarotonga has only a few more than 100 white people in its population of over 2,000. It may here be said that about one in every thirty-one of the male population between the ages of seventeen and fifty went to the seat of war in the contingents.

As regards the value in the fighting line of the New Zealand contingents the following words taken from the third volume of the *Times History* of the war may be quoted as giving the opinion of an impartial observer:—

“ It would be hardly an exaggeration to say that after they had had a little experience, they were by general consent regarded as, on an average, the best mounted troops in South Africa.”

In 1900 a short Act was passed to extend to the South African contingents the provisions of the Military Pensions Act, which only dealt with the grant of pensions for wounds, etc., incurred on service within the colony. One of the clauses of the new Act provided that pensions and allowances granted by the dominion to members of the South African contingents should not in any way be affected by reason of grants of the same nature made by the Imperial Government.

In addition to moneys expended by the Government in connection with the despatch of the contingents, £52,409 were privately subscribed towards assisting to provide equipment and remounts, and £60,856 were subscribed to a patriotic fund. Out of this latter amount a sum of £42,856 was expended on the support of the wives and families of married men at the seat of war, and in similar help where and when required. The remaining £18,000 were sent to England to various funds having a similar object.

CHAPTER II

IMPERIAL DEFENCE

WHAT Imperial Defence means—Strengthening of New Zealand ports—Mutual obligations—Naval Reserve—Imperial Defence *versus* Militarism—Plans of defence discussed.

THE question of defence of the Empire is one which is frequently discussed, and no part of the British dominions is more affected than New Zealand. Various opinions are expressed as to the share which the self-governing colonies are taking in the heavy burden involved and also as to what that share ought to be. The first thing to be considered is what does "Imperial Defence" mean? Even on this point there appears to be divided opinions.

The true meaning seems to be that every part of the Empire should share according to its capabilities, both in men and money, towards making the fighting power of the Empire sufficiently strong to resist any attack that may be made on any portion of its territories. This can best be done by each of the self-governing colonies in the first instance providing the defences and forces that are necessary to make any attack upon its own territory not only dangerous but hopeless.

Great Britain's enemies, although they would of course strike at the main arteries and trade routes of the Empire, would nevertheless endeavour to do her as much harm as they could by injury to any part of the dominions under the British Crown.

The first line of defence must necessarily be the Royal Navy, and anything that can be done to help in making that defence as effective as possible is of the first importance.

Some think the amount given in actual pounds, shillings and pence by each colony the only measure by which assistance can be calculated. If that be the only means of

A PROPER STANDARD

appraising the value of the aid given then, of course, the contributions could not be said to be large, as although the Commonwealth of Australia now gives £200,000 a year and New Zealand £100,000 in addition to what is given by other self-governing colonies, the amount of all such contributions is quite an insignificant proportion of the total expenditure.

This does not seem to be the proper standard by which the value of assistance should be gauged. That standard should be the actual usefulness of the work done as regards strengthening the defence of the Empire generally. New Zealand affords an instance of the practical application of this principle. Within the last twenty-five years a system of external defence has by her been brought into being. With what object then could that line of defence have been created except for the purpose of preventing the foes of Great Britain injuring or seizing part of her territory.

New Zealand in 1885 commenced to take part in Imperial Defence. She began the work by endeavouring in the first place to give what aid she could to the only real line of defence—the Navy. Some may say: "In what way has New Zealand helped Naval Defence?" The answer to that question is a very simple one: "By endeavouring to render her own principal ports, and consequently her centres of trade and shipping, safe against any form of attack by sea." By making these ports secure against attack she provides a resting place in time of war not only for the vessels of the Mercantile Marine which carry on British trade, but also a haven where our men-of-war can lie undisturbed while coaling and refitting. One of the principal requirements of the Admiralty has been the provision of coaling-stations in distant parts of the Empire. This has been amply met in the case of New Zealand. The security of British ships on the high seas in time of war is a matter which must

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

cause great anxiety to the admirals in command of the fleets or squadrons in the various oceans. Take, for instance, the Australian command. The admiral on that station would be aware of the merchant vessels on their way to New Zealand, and his individual responsibility in regard to them would obviously increase when they reached his own waters. One question he would put to himself would be : " How soon will these vessels be in a position of safety ? " The relief from anxiety on hearing of their arrival in any of New Zealand's securely defended ports would be enormous, as he would know that once within their headlands they would be safe from attack by any foe.

This then shows that New Zealand has seriously grappled with the question of Naval Defence and has been guided in all the measures she has undertaken by the sole desire to give aid in that direction. If further proof be needed that that external defence by these dominions is part of a comprehensive system, it is afforded by the fact that all the plans securing the safety of the harbours have received consideration by the Imperial naval authorities, and that the advice given by them as to the strength and location of forts and other necessary works has invariably been followed as far as circumstances would permit.

To those who are not convinced by the foregoing facts it may be pointed out that the obligation of the Mother Country remains the same in any case. For instance, England only sixty-eight years ago added New Zealand to her territory for reasons of her own. Having acquired the country and increased her trade by so doing, she was bound under any circumstances to defend it if she wished to retain it. For many years the people of the islands were unable to do anything to assist the Mother Country and relied solely on the protection of her fleets to enable them to develop their country, and pursue their

A NAVAL POLICY

way free from molestation. When the circumstances of New Zealand enabled her to take some part in the protection of her own shores, she proved by her efforts to perfect her own defence that she was willing and ready to join a great scheme of Imperial Defence. In fact, it may be stated that every step taken by New Zealand in the way of defence has been in accordance with the naval policy of the Empire.

As far as defence by a navy is concerned, financial conditions alone must for many years prevent any really substantial addition being made to the strength of the imperial fleet by vessels of war acquired, maintained, officered and manned by colonial funds. A certain amount of floating defence, however, may be of use in strengthening the local system decided upon.

Further evidence of increased desire to assist in Imperial Defence was given by the establishment of a branch of the Naval Reserve in Australasia. Moreover, New Zealand herself has lately been trying to get a ship in which to train boys for the naval service of their King.

Much yet remains to be done, it is true, in the cause of Imperial Defence. Its active prosecution, however, by the oversea dominion, from the time they were able to take part in it, proves beyond doubt that they are not only proud to be partners in the scheme, but are fully prepared to help in bringing it up to a high standard of efficiency.

The term "Imperial Defence" correctly interpreted does not imply militarism. "Militarism" is a system which leads nations to pay excessive attention to military affairs, and tends to the keeping up of armies unnecessarily large for purposes of defence alone. It leads to war. Imperial Defence, on the other hand, merely implies due preparation for the protection of one's own country. It simply encourages a healthy attention to the steps necessary to this end. Moreover, it is absurd to speak

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

of militarism in connection with a colony. A colony cannot of its own accord carry on war. It may or may not be advisable to rely on purely voluntary effort in the dominions over the seas, but to condemn on the ground of militarism any system of universal military training for defence is to put an improper construction on the word militarism, one contrary, in fact, to its true meaning.

It was well said by the Earl of Derby: "Militarism cannot coexist with industry on a great scale." The essence of the success of our colonies is that they are centres of industry. Imperial Defence may not only coexist with industry on a great scale, but will tend to promote it, inasmuch as those engaged in industrial pursuits will thus be assured that the fruits of their labour will thereby be preserved to them.

Imperial Defence, which means the defence of the whole Empire, is a matter of such vital importance to the Mother Country and her daughter dominions that deliberate, concerted, and continuous action must take the place of the spasmodic and disconnected arrangements of the past.

In order that the needs of the various outlying parts of the Empire should be fully known and discussed a "Council of Defence" should meet periodically consisting of leading statesmen competent to give local information, and who would have power to avail themselves of the best expert opinions.

The minds of all must be concentrated on the one point of how the forces of the Empire generally can be best employed to defeat the common foe, should war take place. This question is an urgent one and imperatively demands early consideration. Its delay involves the danger of losing everything that makes the Empire worth having. It can only be dealt with in a statesmanlike manner by accepting as an axiom that the best way to

A COUNCIL OF DEFENCE

secure peace is to be prepared for war. If that be admitted the question that will naturally arise will be : "Have such preparations been made, or are they in course of being made ?" The answer to that would be : "Yes, some are being made, but in such a form that they are not of really practical value because they are not based on one general scheme for the defence of the whole Empire." The plans proposed for each separate part may be perfect as far as the defence of that particular portion of the Empire is concerned ; but previous to the final adoption of those plans the general scheme of defence ought to be considered and settled by representatives of every portion of the Empire.

Imperial policy must of course be laid down by the Mother Country which is necessarily the head of all matters imperial, and out of that policy arises the question of peace or war. Can it be said that in England it has been definitely decided what are the absolute requirements as regards land forces for carrying a war to a successful issue ?

The whole system of the British Army is being continually changed, and each successive Secretary of State for War has a different plan for making the military forces efficient for the needs of the country and therefore the needs of the Empire.

The Mother Country being thus unable to decide a matter of such vital importance, how can she expect her dictum as to what should be done by each colony to be accepted as a final authoritative opinion ?

There is only one point on which all parties are united, and that is that the Navy is the most important of the necessities of our life as a nation and must be kept up to the highest possible standard. But even on the question of what is the necessary standard a definite pronouncement has only quite recently been made by the Prime Minister. How it should be maintained when

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

arrived at is still a matter on which opinions are divided in the United Kingdom. With the Mother Country must rest the decision on that point, as under her control alone can the Navy be kept in the state of efficiency absolutely essential to national safety.

A quotation from the *New Zealand Budget* for 1908 will show how the importance of this is realized in the dominion :—

“The value of the British Navy for the preservation of the Empire to which we belong is fully recognized ; and to show our goodwill, as well as our recognition of the immense services to this country that the British Navy affords, the Government some months ago advised the Secretary of State for the Colonies, through His Excellency the Governor, that we would increase our contribution to £100,000 per annum, at the same time advising the home authorities that we recognized the importance of the ships of war being under the sole control of the Admiralty, either in times of war or peace, and that our contribution would be given unconditionally.”

The whole question of defence of the Empire is one of supreme importance, and its settlement can only be arrived at if there be whole-hearted devotion to the cause on the part of every individual citizen. Then will the desired end be attained, every constituent part being so cemented to the rest as to make one impregnable structure.

In connection with this great subject it may be well to quote the following words which occur in the preamble of the “Naval Defence Act, 1908” :—

“The Commissioners for executing the office of Lord High Admiral of the United Kingdom and the Governments of the Commonwealth of Australia and of New Zealand having recognized the importance of sea power in regard to the control it gives oversea communications ; the necessity of a single Navy under one authority—by which alone concerted action can be secured—and the advantages of developing the sea power of Australia and New Zealand,” etc., etc.

It has recently been suggested that some officer of distinction in the British Army might with benefit be

A DIFFICULT PROBLEM

sent to the Australasian dominions to advise as to the organization of their forces.

Should this suggestion be adopted it may lead to a practical consideration of national defence from the oversea standpoint and a useful step taken in the direction of solving a very difficult problem.

PART VII

DEVELOPMENT DURING RECENT YEARS

CHAPTER I

DEVELOPMENT—1870 TO 1908

GENERAL progress—Policy of Sir Julius Vogel—Act for Abolition of Provinces, 1875—Premiership of Sir George Grey—Triennial Parliament Act, 1879—The Parihaka troubles, 1881—Direct steamship communication between New Zealand and Great Britain, 1883—Volcanic eruptions at Tarawera, 1886—One man, one vote, 1890—Noted statesmen—Acts of Parliament—Noteworthy events of last ten years.

IN 1870 began what may be called the real life of the colony. Up to that year the progress of New Zealand had been impeded by difficulties inherent in any scheme of colonization in which a white race has to struggle for pre-eminence with the aborigines in possession.

Wars with the natives had continued for many years, but now there was a chance of the people being able to turn their attention to the arts of peace. The provincial governments had done much towards solving the difficult problem of settlement and colonization. Indeed, to give them their due, they had accomplished all the necessary "spade work." By their energy and devotion to the interests of those within their boundaries everything possible, considering the means at their command, had been carried out.

Their early attention to the important subject of education and the religious wants of the people gave the rising generation the same advantages which their parents had enjoyed in the Mother Country. Thus the younger members of the community were being led to appreciate

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

the prospective value of legislation for the general good.

The construction of roads, bridges, and other public works which are absolute essentials in any civilized country had been undertaken and proceeded with steadily. As one instance of the determination of the people to advance public works for the benefit of future generations, the following may be noted. It was obvious that direct communication between Christchurch and its seaport Lyttelton must be established. A great barrier was in the way in the shape of a high hill to the base of which on the Christchurch side a railway had been early constructed. A few years later this hill was pierced by a tunnel, and thus by provincial enterprise access to the sea was given to a large tract of country.

Immense progress was made under the provincial governments. During their regime vast tracts of land became open to settlement. Agricultural and pastoral industries were firmly established. The products of these industries continued to rise in value, and steadily increasing money returns which came into the colony showed the wisdom of the outlay embarked on. Other industries such as gold-mining, flax-milling, gum-digging and the timber trade became flourishing undertakings. The central government considered this to be a time when it should make some special movement toward colonization and forwarding the general interests of the country.

The result was the initiation in 1870 of the public works policy which has been so far-reaching in its effects, of such inestimable value in the settlement of the country, and contributed so largely to its present prosperity.

The late Sir Julius Vogel, who was the author of the policy now brought before the country, was the Colonial Treasurer of the Government at that time in power. He had visions of a country covered with a network of railways

A FAR-REACHING POLICY

and roads, telegraph lines and all modern accessories of civilization, and peopled by those attracted to its shores.

State-aided immigration was one of the important items in his programme, but was not guarded by the necessary care as to the selection of those who were to participate in it.

This great scheme of colonization and development of the country was to be carried out by means of a loan obtained in the Mother Country, and the sale of more than 2,000,000 acres of land. The amount of the loan was, to be £10,000,000. It cannot then be a matter of surprise that the proposal to enter into this vast undertaking was, generally speaking, hailed with delight. Money to an amount not dreamt of before was to be poured into the country and every part of it was determined to get its share.

Vogel himself firmly believed that the scheme now propounded by him must finally result in great good to the colony.

It was impossible for such a large sum of money to be suddenly brought into the country without entailing a great amount of speculation and reckless expenditure. Reaction after such excitement was inevitable in this case, as in all others under like circumstances.

Although the course now determined on met, as has been said, with general approval, there were points connected with it which evoked opposition. This was due to the fact that in the original proposals of Sir Julius Vogel the creation of a public estate out of the land through which the railways would pass was estimated to provide a means of recouping their cost. The land within the provinces was in the hands of the provincial governments for disposal as they might decide. They were not prepared to part with it. To them appeared the vision of its value being enormously enhanced by the construction of the railways.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The creation of State forests to make up for the denudation of the timber of the country during its settlement was another great cause of opposition on the part of the provincial governments. The opposition was too strong and that part of the programme had to be eliminated. This led to the abolition of the provinces. Vogel was determined that they should go. The battle which then ensued in the House on the abolition question was a long and severe one. Public opinion throughout the country was divided and feeling ran high.

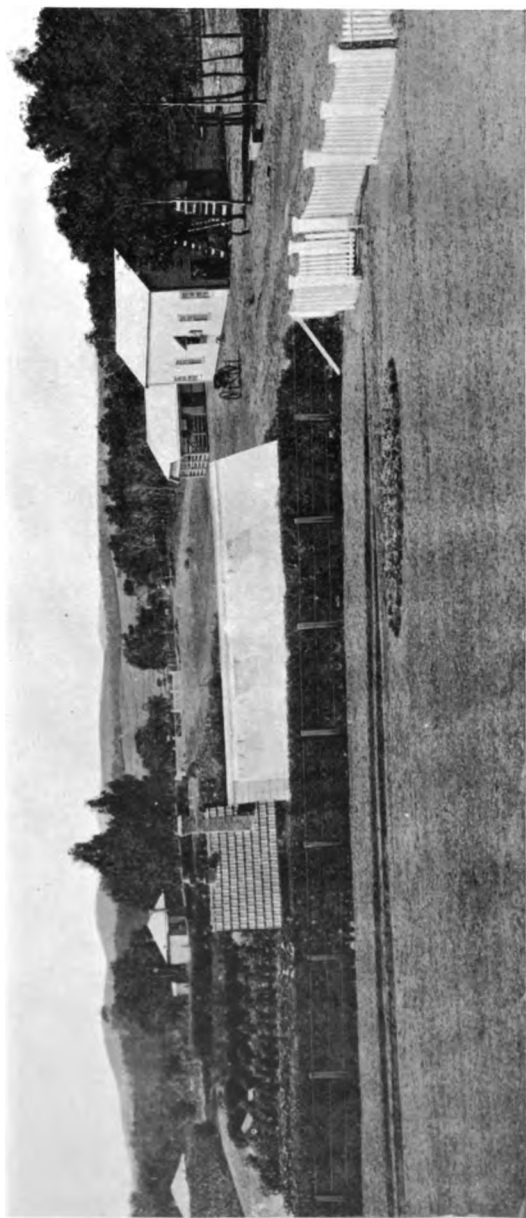
Sir George Grey, who had returned to the colony to live as a private citizen, now entered the political arena. He was sent to Parliament as the representative of the City of Auckland and led the Provincialists.

Every device that could be thought of was tried to prevent abolition and to cause an appeal to be made to the people, but without avail.

There were several changes of ministry during the period 1872-75, but the battle still raged round the abolition centre.

In October, 1875, an Act for the abolition of the provinces was passed, but it was not to come into force until after a General Election. The number of members of the House was increased by ten, and a majority in favour of abolition was returned. In 1876 the Act of 1875 came into operation and the provinces ceased to exist.

In 1873 Sir Julius Vogel became Premier and his ministry was in power till September, 1878, when he left for England to take up the position of Agent-General. There had been technically changes in the Premiership, but they were only for the purpose of providing temporarily for a holder of the position during Sir Julius's absence from the country. Before he left New Zealand he was able to see as results of his policy that 718 miles of railway were open for traffic, that 427 miles were under



GOVERNMENT EXPERIMENTAL STATION (WAERENGA)

TWO GREAT MEASURES

construction, and that more than 50,000 people had been brought into the country.

The struggle for the prosecution of public works in the various districts which commenced with the introduction of the Vogel policy has continued to this day. A struggle of this nature must always take place in any country in which the State undertakes the execution of public works.

During the period just referred to, 1870-76, many events of some importance to the colony had taken place. A University had been founded, the New Zealand Shipping Company and the Union Steamship Company had been established—colonial undertakings of considerable magnitude; the first telegraphic communication with the outside world had been accomplished by the laying of the cable between New Zealand and New South Wales, and a mail service which lasted for many years had been commenced *via* San Francisco.

Two measures closely affecting the condition of the people had been passed. One was the "Land Transfer Act," to facilitate the dealing with real estate; the other the "Public Trust Office Act." A step had been taken affecting the Maori race, namely, the appointment of two Maori chiefs to the Legislative Council.

On the resignation of Sir Julius Vogel's ministry in 1876, Sir Harry Atkinson undertook to form one. This was in reality only a reconstruction of the previous ministry.

In 1877 Sir Harry Atkinson was compelled to give up the reins of office on a defeat following a vote of want of confidence. He was succeeded by Sir George Grey, who had rallied his old party round him on the strength of a very radical programme. During his term of office the Act for providing free and compulsory education was passed, as also one imposing a land-tax. His government only remained in power for two years, during which the administration of affairs was very badly conducted, and

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

an increase of about £5,000,000 was made to the public debt.

The Grey Government was also responsible for the commencement of the nearest approach to trouble with the natives that had occurred since the termination of the war in 1870. The trouble arose from the action of the Government in causing land at Parihaka, on the south-west coast of the North Island, to be advertised for sale and in commencing the necessary surveys. This land was part of that which had been confiscated after the Taranaki war and out of which reserves for the natives had been promised to be made. Some of the survey-lines had been taken through the standing-crops belonging to the natives, who, by the direction of their leader, Te Whiti, promptly pulled up the survey-pegs as fast as they were put in. This went on for some time, but eventually many Maori were arrested and sent to prison. Te Whiti then determined to adopt stronger measures and directed certain of his people to plough up some of the cultivated lands belonging to the white settlers. One hundred and eighty of these natives were eventually arrested and sent to prison. Te Whiti was personally a peaceful man and he impressed upon his followers that if force were used against them they were not to retaliate. Some of his remarks were of a caustic nature, as for instance, when he said to those who were ploughing: "If fear fills the minds of the pakehas (the settlers) and they flee from their farms as in the old war days, enter not their houses, touch not their goods, slay not their herds." To his credit it must be said that he also told them that his eye was over all and that a thief would not go scatheless. Four hundred ploughmen altogether were sent to gaol and were detained until the following year.

It has been said that the only fault of these natives was that they faithfully obeyed the orders of their patriotic and fanatical chief. It must, however, be remembered

NATIVE TROUBLES

that the settlers still had in their minds the memory of former native troubles and that fanaticism might lead to an outbreak unless prompt measures were taken to compel obedience to the law.

In 1879 the Grey Government was defeated in the House and an appeal was made to the country. Here again the party became in a minority and the former one returned to power. A ministry was then formed with Sir John Hall as Premier.

This government on its advent to power at once commenced a policy of extreme retrenchment coupled with an increase of taxation. The retrenchment took the form of the reduction of all public salaries by ten per cent. The public officials looked with apprehension at this form of national saving. They did not feel sure as to how far it might be extended. They were, however, perfectly well aware of the fact that, although they were now to suffer for the public good, it was not at all certain that salaries would be raised when the financial outlook improved.

Within two months of the formation of this ministry a "Triennial Parliament Act" was passed as well as one giving the parliamentary vote to every male of twenty-one years and upwards.

In November, 1881, fresh measures were taken in connection with the Parihaka troubles which still continued. A Royal Commission had pronounced in favour of the native claims on the ground that faith had not been kept with them. But the Government were determined that the natives should not be permitted to continue keeping affairs in a perpetual ferment by their aggressive action. It was known that the natives had many guns in their possession, and although ostensibly they had them for shooting kakas and pigeons, they might be easily turned to another use if fanaticism should lead to less peaceful ends.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The settlers exercised admirable self-control and serious trouble was thus probably averted. It was decided to send an armed force to occupy Parihaka, to arrest Te Whiti and Tohu, his second in command, to take away the guns from the natives and to send to their homes those who did not belong to their district. Some of these refused to go, and accordingly they were arrested. Te Whiti and Tohu after trial before a magistrate were sent to prison. After a short time the rigour of their imprisonment was relaxed, and after sixteen months they were allowed to return to their homes.

In the following year, 1882, the first shipment of frozen meat was sent to England, and thus a commencement was made of one of New Zealand's most important industries.

In 1883 direct steamship communication between New Zealand and the Mother Country was inaugurated with great advantage to the community.

Reconstructions of the ministry took place on two occasions during the years 1882 and 1883, and in the latter year Sir Harry Atkinson assumed office as Premier. In June, 1884, the Atkinson Government was defeated, and on finding themselves beaten at the General Election which took place shortly afterwards, they resigned office.

Sir Robert Stout was charged with the formation of a ministry, and succeeded in doing so. But it only lasted a few weeks and Sir Harry Atkinson again became Premier, but only for one day.

Sir Julius Vogel had now returned to the colony, and, forsaking his old party, joined forces with Sir Robert Stout, and a Stout-Vogel ministry was formed.

Borrowing and public works still proceeded hand in hand, but nothing of any special moment occurred except the commencement of the east and west coast South Island railway by a private company.

In 1887 the Stout-Vogel ministry was defeated in the

A NATIONAL DISASTER

House, and afterwards at the poll following the dissolution of parliament. Sir Harry Atkinson again formed a ministry and again commenced his term of office by retrenchment and taxation. On this occasion the salaries of the Governor and of the Ministers were reduced and the honorariums of the Members of Parliament were cut down. At the same time, the number of members of the House of Representatives was reduced by twenty-one. The taxation was increased by the imposition of further Customs duties. During this parliament a statute was passed prohibiting any voter from voting in more than one electorate.

In 1886 there occurred what may be described as one of the greatest disasters that have overtaken New Zealand. That was the destruction of the far-famed Pink and White Terrace by the volcanic eruptions at Tarawera, when Lake Rotomahana disappeared. The whole side of Tarawera Mountain was blown out, the debris was scattered far and wide, and a large tract of country was absolutely desolated. Unfortunately, also, there was considerable loss of life. The terrific noise caused by the explosions was distinctly heard in Wellington, distant somewhere about 190 miles from the scene of eruption. The sound resembled what one might expect to be caused by the firing of heavy guns on board a ship in Cook's Straits.

On the 3rd of October, 1890, Parliament was dissolved, and on the 5th of December the first election of Members of the House of Representatives took place under what was practically the one man one vote principle.

In the January of the following year Sir Harry Atkinson's ministry resigned and another was called to power under the Premiership of Mr. John Ballance. The political party which had been in power for many years then disappeared from the Government benches to which they have never since returned.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Sir Harry Atkinson, who had always been the moving spirit in the ministries in which he had served, now gave up the active political life to which he had been so long accustomed and became Speaker of the Legislative Council. He did not long survive the change and died suddenly in 1892 within the precincts of the House of Parliament.

The rulers of the country during fifteen years of the period 1870-90 formed what has since been always called the Continuous Ministry. They had not however the same right to that name as their successors, the latter having held office continuously since 1890, with change of personnel it is true, but without any alteration of party principles.

During the period 1870-90 the principal figures in the political arena were Sir George Grey, Sir Julius Vogel and Sir Harry Atkinson. The first of these was one who had made a name for himself before coming to New Zealand as Governor, a position which he twice held, and who also occupied a similar official position in Cape Colony. He became a prominent person in New Zealand's political life when he entered the House to champion the cause of provincialism. He formed a ministry to advance the social measures he advocated, but was at the same time a determined autocrat.

Sir Julius Vogel, as the author of the public works policy, has a just claim to be included amongst the foremost men of the time. Whatever may be said of his financial schemes and the mode of carrying them out, this ought in justice to be recorded, "that his good deeds live after him." Although there have been, and may again be, alterations in the details of the scheme he originally propounded, no change of any great importance in its general principles is ever likely to be made.

Sir Harry Atkinson, who was four times Premier, was a man of indomitable energy, a conspicuous financier, and

PROMINENT STATESMEN

a true leader of men. He had taken a great part in the early life of the settlement in Taranaki, and had taken his part in the Maori war, on the west coast of the North Island with credit to himself. He had held a prominent position in the centralist party during the great abolition fight, and was responsible for the conduct in Parliament of the measure introduced to abolish the provinces.

Sir John Hall, the Hon. W. Rolleston, and the Hon. C. C. Bowen will always have their names associated with genuine measures of reform for the benefit of their fellow-countrymen.

The name of the first will always be associated with his strong advocacy of the franchise being extended to women; that of the Hon. W. Rolleston with advanced views on the settlement of land; and the name of the third with the authorship of the first comprehensive scheme of education.

Sir Frederick Whittaker, who occupied the position of Premier as well as other offices in the various ministries of the period, was an astute politician whose advice on matters of moment in the life of a ministry could never be disregarded.

Ministries which had passed a Triennial Parliament Act as also one to give manhood suffrage can scarcely be called Conservative, and yet that name, as well as Tory, was lavished upon them.

It is a pity that when the two political parties in New Zealand were being designated such singularly inappropriate names as "Liberal" and "Conservative" were adopted.

State Socialism commenced with the policy adopted in 1870 and still continues. It has become more advanced since that year and will probably develop still more. But Socialism as it is known in the Mother Country is yet far off.

The people of the dominion have wisely got a desire to

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

retain the rights of personal property and do not intend to put everything into the melting pot.

The net indebtedness of the colony on March 31st, 1890, was £37,281,765, or £60 5s. 3d. per head of the European population.

The ministry formed in 1891 came into power through the first vote recorded under manhood suffrage. The first item on its programme was discontinuance of borrowing. There had been extravagance in the conduct of public works. There was also a period of commercial depression.

When the devil was sick the devil a saint would be,
When the devil got well the devil a saint was he.

It was only for a short time that the devil remained a saint. How long he wore his saintly robes may be judged by the following facts.

The net indebtedness per head of the European population on March 31st, 1891, two months after the Government came into office, was £59 11s. 10d.; on the same date in 1895 it was £57 9s. 9d.; on March 31st, 1908, it was £67 15s. 1d. The net indebtedness of the dominion on the last named date was £63,524,961.

The promise not to borrow was a foolish one, because it was impossible to carry out all the social reforms foreshadowed, and develop the trade and settlement of the country without borrowing.

The claim is made that it has been principally for reproductive works. This is granted, but it must not be forgotten that the promise which went far towards winning the election was a definite one.

There were, of course, many other items in the programme. A land and income-tax was to be imposed in place of the property-tax then existing, the people were to be settled on the land, and the conditions under which the manual-labourer worked were to be entirely altered. All this has been accomplished without any dislocation

ADVANCED LEGISLATION

materially affecting the condition of the general community. The ministry formed to carry out these great changes was suited to the time.

Mr. Ballance was an organiser of no mean capacity and of a suave, pleasant manner.

Sir John Mackenzie was a practical man of considerable farming experience, who held advanced views on the subject of land-tenure and was a forcible exponent of what he thought just in that direction.

The Right Hon. Richard Seddon had sprung from the ranks of labour in the old country and held very strong opinions on the duty of the State to the manual worker.

The Hon. W. P. Reeves was a scholar and writer of great ability, who looked for the regeneration of the people by means of remedies of a socialistic character.

Sir Joseph Ward, Sir Patrick Buckley, and Mr. A. J. Cadman were also members of the Ministry. Mr. James Carroll, an extremely able half-caste, became the direct representative in the Executive of the Maori race. Sir Joseph Ward and Mr. Carroll alone remain in office out of the 1891 ministry. Mr. Ballance, Sir John Mackenzie, the Right Hon. Richard John Seddon, Sir Patrick Buckley and Mr. Cadman have joined the great majority, while Mr. Reeves, who became Agent-General of the Colony and afterwards the first High Commissioner of the dominion, has now transferred his undoubted talents to the service of the London University.

During the first two years of this ministry the property-tax was repealed and was replaced by a land and income-tax, and a commencement was made of labour legislation. A Land Act was also passed establishing the systems of lease in perpetuity, occupation with right of purchase, optional method of selection, and small farm associations.

A Land for Settlement Act was also placed on the statute-book. This authorized the Government to purchase private estates for the purpose of sub-dividing

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

them. It was repealed in 1894 and replaced by one of the same name, but which gave power to the Government to compulsorily acquire private lands considered suitable for settlement.

In April, 1893, Mr. Ballance died and the Premiership passed to the Right Hon. R. J. Seddon, who retained that position until his death on June 10th, 1906.

From 1893 onward further legislation has been passed in connection with labour. A description of this legislation is given in a chapter devoted to the laws on that subject.

In 1893 an "Electoral Act" was passed by which women received the franchise, and in the same year that important Act dealing with the control of the sale of alcoholic liquors became law. It is fully described in another chapter. In the same year special legislation was made with reference to banking. One Act with reference to this subject made bank-notes issued by any bank in the colony a first charge on its assets.

In 1894 the "New Zealand Consols Act" was passed. This important Act was placed on the statute-book with the view of providing means of investment for the savings of residents in the colony.

In the same year special legislation was made in connection with the Bank of New Zealand. An important part of this was an Act guaranteeing out of the Consolidated Fund a special issue of shares by the bank to the amount of £2,000,000.

Amending Acts with reference to this institution were passed in 1895, 1898, 1903 and 1904. Other legislation of a varied nature has become law during the past ten or twelve years.

Amongst the Acts of which it is composed may be mentioned a "Deceased Husband's Brother Marriage Act"; a "State Coal Mines Act"; a "State Fire Insurance Act"; the "Maori Councils Act"; and one

A LEADER OF MEN

for the rating on the unimproved value of land. The most important of all, however, are "The Old-Age Pensions Act of 1898" with its amending Act, 1905, and the "Preferential and Reciprocal Trade Act, 1903."

There have been many noteworthy events during the last ten years of which some mention must be made. One of these was the despatch of the New Zealand contingents to South Africa; another the proclamation of May 24th as Empire Day; and a third the change of the designation of the colony of New Zealand to that of the Dominion of New Zealand. Special mention must be made of two events of particular importance—one was the establishment in the dominion of universal penny postage on January 1st, 1901, and the other the opening of the "all red" Pacific cable for international business on December 8th, 1902.

There is yet one more to be alluded to, and that is the death in 1906 of the Right Hon. R. J. Seddon, who for more than thirteen years continuously was Premier of New Zealand and was made a Privy Councillor when officially visiting England on the occasion of the Diamond Jubilee of the reign of her late Majesty Queen Victoria.

Of the prominent men of the past seventeen years in the history of New Zealand the one who holds the first place is undoubtedly the late Premier. He was an autocrat and one with whom many disagreed both as to his line of politics and the mode in which he carried them out, but he was a good representative of British manhood. Both physically and mentally he was a strong man, and his rise from the position of a private member to that of Premier, within thirteen years of his entry into the House of Representatives, coupled with the fact that he held the latter position for so long, shows that he was a born leader of men.

The late Sir John Mackenzie was also a powerful personage and one of indomitable will.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The question as to whether New Zealand will ever revert to politics on the lines existing prior to 1891 can be answered by the word "No." Changes of government may, and probably will take place, and a drag may be put on the wheel of the present political chariot, but the advanced legislation has come to stay.

Although one member of Parliament was returned at the last General Election as a direct representative of Labour there is no regular "Labour Party." It is not required when the whole of the dominant political party is in favour of the aims of the workers.

When viewing the undoubtedly advanced legislation of recent years one must take into account the fact that New Zealand has been only a politically organised country for a comparatively short period. The circumstances of the Mother Country and her daughter are perfectly different. What may be suitable for one beginning its career would be quite out of place in a country of adult growth. It would be inconceivable that a young country should not take advantage of the knowledge gained during the progress of centuries.

Whatever may have been the effect of all that has been done in the past, New Zealanders may well say that they have a goodly heritage and that their lines have fallen in pleasant places.

PART VIII

HINTS, ROUTES, COST OF LIVING, ETC.

GENERAL advice to intending emigrants—Routes—Cost of living
—Openings for employment—Fares.

ONE of the most embarrassing questions that are asked by an intending settler is : "What would you advise me to do on going out to New Zealand?" So much may depend on the reply that one feels that there is a great responsibility incurred in giving it. One warning must occupy the first place, and that is : "You are not going out to a country where you can succeed unless you are prepared to work as, however pleasant it may be to live in, New Zealand is not a home for the idler." Many of those who propose to settle in the British dominions over the seas have an idea that each of them is a place where riches are to be obtained almost for the asking. There is not in New Zealand a ready-made road to fortune any more than in any other country. Much depends on whether the intending settler has capital or means to earn his own living either by his brains or his hands. If the former is the case there is ample scope in the dominion for the investment of money under very favourable conditions, either in farming in its various branches or in one of the various industries, provided that he makes up his mind to learn thoroughly everything connected with the business in which he embarks. If the settler is to be a wage-earner, then he may do well if he is prepared to forge his way to the front by degrees. The best advice to all who are determined to settle in New Zealand is : Read thoroughly about the country, and then choose for yourself the district that seems most suitable to your capabilities. Get to that one in the first place,

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

and have what is ordinarily called "a look round." In these days, when pamphlets and every other kind of literature are available, there is no difficulty in getting reliable information about the various parts of the dominion. To one who is going to work with his hands, I would say: "Take the first job that offers which you feel you may do with satisfaction to yourself and your employer."

The expression has been used that New Zealand is no country for "the idler." The term is one of very wide interpretation, and is not meant here to include the man of leisure who with money at his command, merely wishes to pass the time amid healthy and pleasant surroundings in a new country. No real enjoyment in life can however be promised to any man who is not prepared to interest himself in the habits and occupations of those around him.

Every settler must try to free himself of old-world prejudices, and must mould his opinions from personal observation, accepting the advice of those who are competent to give it. He will find neighbours genial and willing to help him to overcome difficulties that must naturally arise through want of knowledge of the country he has chosen for his home. Almost every intending settler seems to assume that because there is still a large area of land to be settled and developed, farming can be profitably undertaken even by one not practically acquainted with it. That is not the case. Knowledge is power in New Zealand, as it is all over the world. In New Zealand a man can make himself a comfortable home under easier circumstances than he could in the old country. He must, however, there as elsewhere, if he is to succeed, take advantage of the experience of others. Old country farmers, even with some capital, will buy their experience very dearly if they do not before starting on their own account gain knowledge locally of the methods peculiar to the country.

EXPERIENCE THE ONLY GUIDE

To one and all the same advice may be given : Do not take out more things than are absolutely necessary, as you will be able to procure in the dominion everything you will want. To farmers it may be said that buying improved land is not always the best investment. The Government offers land in the various districts which can be obtained under favourable conditions, and those now going out to settle will not be by any means so isolated as those who in the old days, taking their courage in both hands, made comfortable homes for themselves in New Zealand.

As to the route which the intending settler should take much must depend upon circumstances. There are the "Peninsular and Oriental" and the "Orient" lines *via* the Mediterranean, but travellers by either of these, although they can be booked through to New Zealand, have to tranship to a steamer of the Union Steamship Company of New Zealand at Melbourne or Sydney. They can travel by one of the steamers of the latter company direct to Wellington, or by one proceeding direct to Auckland, which afterwards calls at all the principal ports till she reaches the Bluff. There are also other lines of British steamers sailing from England to Australia by which through passages to New Zealand can be obtained, but which are open to the same objection that transhipment in Australia is necessary. The Norddeutschen Lloyd, and the Messageries lines also run through the Mediterranean and have the same objection. The Canadian Pacific route is rapid, but passengers must twice tranship on the journey. There remain then the two direct lines—the New Zealand Shipping Company and the Shaw, Savill, and Albion Company sailing every month. The steamers of the former line after leaving England call at Teneriffe, Cape Town and Tasmania, those of the latter line calling at one Australian port in addition.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

To settlers going out with families and belongings these steamers seem to provide the most convenient mode of transit. Passengers' personal effects, workmen's tools, etc., up to the value of £50, and household effects previously in use up to £100 are admitted free, provided they are imported within two years of the owner's arrival in the dominion.

The details connected with the principal routes will be found in Appendix VIII.

The preliminary expenditure must vary considerably according to the requirements of the settler. First, there is probably the cost of reaching London or Plymouth, and a stay of a day or so at either place before embarking. Secondly, there is the cost of housing and living on first arrival in the dominion. The cost at an hotel may be put down at 10s. to 12s. per day. The cost of living at a boarding house—and there are many such—may be put down at from 20s. a week upwards. In the case of working men, two to three-roomed cottages may be rented at from 5s. to 7s. a week, and for larger houses from 8s. to 25s. a week, the rents being highest in Wellington.

Of course the preliminary expenditure for embarking in such an undertaking, as for instance acquiring a farm, involves a varying outlay according to position, class of land, and whether the farm is an improved one or not. If the farm is one which is unimproved the cost will be in the various districts as shown in Appendix VII.

The cost of living may be said on the whole to be somewhat less than in the Mother Country under ordinary circumstances with the one exception of clothing. This may be put down at 20 per cent. higher. The average cost of provisions is given in Appendix III, together with the average rate of wages for all classes of labour up to the latest date available.

The principal openings for employment at present are for agricultural labourers, shepherds, and men able to

CHEAP TRAVELLING

milk cows and manage live-stock. To these and also to small farmers reduced passages by the two direct lines to the dominion are given provided that they take with them not less than £25, and are approved of by the High Commissioner as being suitable in every way. Domestic servants (single women) can also obtain passages at reduced rates subject to their taking with them not less than £2.

Those who book at reduced fares receive exactly the same treatment as those who have paid the ordinary fare.

The rates of reduced fares are :—

2nd Class berth in a 4-berth cabin	£27
" " " " 2- " " " "	£32
3rd " " " " 4- " " " "	£10
" " " " 2- " " " "	£12

APPENDIX I

POPULATION

THE estimated population (exclusive of the Maori and the Cook and other Pacific Islands) for the year ended December 31st, 1907, was :—

Males.	Females.	Total.
492,649	436,835	929,484

The Maori population according to the census of 1906 was :—

Males.	Females.	Total.
25,538	22,193	47,731

That of the Cook and other islands according to the same census was :—

Males.	Females.	Total.
6,224	6,116	12,340

The total estimated population of the dominion on December 31st, 1907, was :—

Males.	Females.	Total.
524,411	465,144	989,555

The estimated population (exclusive of the Maori and inhabitants of the Cook and other islands) in each of the years 1898-1908 was :—

Year.	Population. Dec. 31st.	Increase during the year.
1898	743,643	14,407
1899	756,505	13,042
1900	768,278	14,177
1901	787,657	19,379
1902	807,929	20,272
1903	832,505	24,576
1904	857,539	25,034
1905	882,462	24,923
1906	908,726	28,761
1907	929,484	20,758
1908	960,000	30,516

APPENDIX I

The census of 1906 shows that (exclusive of the Maori and the inhabitants of the Cook and other Pacific Islands) the birthplaces of the people were as follows :—

United Kingdom	208,931
New Zealand	606,247
Other parts of Australasia	47,536
Other British Possessions.. .. .	4,280
Foreign Countries	19,867
At Sea	1,245
Not specified	472

The population of all towns having, exclusive of the Maori, more than 2,000 inhabitants is shown to be 437,916. From this it will be seen that more than half the population live in country districts.

The birth rate of the dominion fell gradually between the years 1882 and 1899, reaching its lowest point in the latter year. Since then there has been a gradual rise with the exception of the year 1902. The rate for a period of ten years was as follows :—

Year.	Number of Births.	Rate per 1,000 of population.
1898	18,955	25·74
1999	18,835	25·12
1900	19,546	25·69
1901	20,491	26·34
1902	20,665	25·89
1903	21,829	26·61
1904	22,766	26·94
1905	23,682	27·22
1906	24,252	27·08
1907	25,094	27·30
1908		27·45

The death rate for 1907 was 10·95 per 1,000 of the population. This is the highest rate since 1883, when it was 11·45 per 1,000.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

A table showing the rate per 1,000 for the years 1897-1908 is given below :—

Year.	Rate.	Year.	Rate.
1897	9·14	1903	10·40
1898	9·84	1904	9·57
1899	10·24	1905	9·27
1900	9·43	1906	9·31
1901	9·81	1907	10·95
1902	10·50	1908	9·57

The Marriage rate for 1907 was 8·91 per 1,000 persons living. The rate for the last few census years was :—

Year.	Rate.
1891	6·04
1896	6·85
1901	7·83
1906	8·48

PROPORTION OF UNMARRIED AND MARRIED PERSONS OF MARRIAGEABLE AGE

(This defined as meaning unmarried and widowed of males aged 20 years and upwards, and females aged 15 years and upwards.)

Census Year.	Proportion of Unmarried per 1,000 of Total.		Proportion of Marriages per thousand of the			
	Males.	Females.	Marriageable Men.	Marriageable Woman.	Marriageable Persons.	Total Population
1891	246·2	267·8	46·22	48·10	47·14	6·04
1896	264·2	308·3	49·11	47·09	48·08	6·85
1901	278·3	330·6	53·56	49·96	51·69	7·83
1906	295·8	326·9	54·09	55·15	54·62	8·48

APPENDIX II

APPENDIX II

AGRICULTURAL AND PASTORAL STATISTICS

LAND IN OCCUPATION, CULTIVATION, AND NUMBER OF HOLDINGS IN EACH DISTRICT, OCTOBER, 1907

District.	Area in Occupation.	Area in Cultivation (including Sown Grasses).	Number of Holdings (1 acre and over).
Auckland ..	5,041,854	1,985,520	21,082
Hawke's Bay..	4,506,281	2,813,071	3,602
Taranaki ..	1,219,680	954,744	5,496
Wellington ..	4,133,479	2,861,128	10,871
Marlborough ..	2,417,461	432,442	1,445
Nelson.. ..	810,759	330,513	3,494
Westland ..	645,496	73,174	888
Canterbury ..	8,013,734	3,066,979	11,849
Otago	10,775,534	2,484,359	14,640
Totals ..	37,564,278	15,001,940	73,367

TABLE SHOWING AREAS UNDER CORN AND GREEN CROPS, GRASSES, PLANTATIONS, ETC., AND
TOTAL AREA IN OCCUPATION IN EACH DISTRICT, OCTOBER, 1907

District.	Crops.		Fallow Land.	Grasses.				Plantations, Orchards, &c.	Total Area in Occupation.
	Corn and Pulse.	Green.		Sown Grass.		Tussock and Native Grasses, &c.			
				Land ploughed.	Land not ploughed.				
Auckland	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	
..	48,287	64,461	13,307	688,482	1,136,408	3,056,334	34,575	5,041,854	
Hawke's Bay	30,665	41,797	1,860	420,198	2,309,587	1,693,210	8,964	4,506,281	
Taranaki	11,226	21,322	656	183,479	735,543	264,936	2,518	1,219,680	
Wellington	45,468	56,882	2,319	339,530	2,405,565	1,272,351	11,374	4,133,489	
Marlborough	31,704	12,186	204	93,028	292,552	1,985,019	2,758	2,417,461	
Nelson ..	22,689	6,037	671	48,317	248,382	480,246	4,417	810,759	
Westland	680	704	242	10,405	60,906	572,322	237	645,496	
Canterbury	429,641	292,498	8,757	1,630,090	669,148	4,946,755	36,845	8,013,734	
Otago ..	323,890	289,445	21,256	1,544,704	311,981	8,291,175	13,083	10,775,534	
Totals	944,250	765,342	49,272	4,958,233	8,170,702	22,562,348	114,771	37,564,278	

APPENDIX II

TOTAL AREA IN DOMINION IN CORN AND PULSE CROPS, ETC.

Year.	Wheat.*	Oats.*	Barley.*	Maize.*	Peas and Beans.*	Other Similar Crops.†	Total under Corn and Pulse Crops.
1898	400,389	631,928	47,703	20,069	9,069	6,043	1,115,201
1899	270,442	591,695	50,778	19,172	10,338	7,067	949,492
1900	208,084	641,041	35,337	15,751	8,960	6,146	915,319
1901	167,474	605,432	33,055	14,392	11,194	8,524	840,071
1902	195,255	689,016	30,112	13,410	11,942	7,350	947,085
1903	230,959	620,798	37,262	12,919	13,360	4,894	920,192
1904	258,896	548,938	32,201	11,840	14,302	5,479	871,656
1905	223,571	599,256	32,914	13,110	15,718	5,532	890,101
1906	212,090	633,279	36,688	10,729	13,899	5,109	911,794
1907	193,889	681,528	41,235	10,967	10,180	6,451	944,250

* Includes area grown for all purposes.

† Includes hops, rye, vetches, linseed, etc.

TOTAL AREA IN DOMINION IN GREEN CROPS, OCTOBER, 1907

Year.	Potatoes.	Turnips.	Mangolds.	Rape.	Carrots.	Beet.	Other Green Crops.	Total under Green Crops.
1898	38,604	416,024	8,069	103,921	1,967	490	4,427	573,502
1899	36,984	415,462	8,051	125,367	1,755	615	4,732	592,966
1900	28,524	404,333	7,341	124,318	1,627	385	4,529	571,057
1901	31,259	398,508	8,249	123,334	1,684	515	4,226	567,775
1902	31,408	392,830	8,141	119,856	1,833	376	3,462	557,906
1903	31,778	408,659	7,808	118,662	1,800	932	3,933	573,572
1904	26,331	447,244	8,376	131,588	1,920	642	6,965	623,066
1905	26,834	469,579	7,090	131,742	1,971	277	7,790	645,283
1906	31,289	514,341	6,571	137,364	1,880	196	8,702	700,343
1907	27,154	549,209	9,242	163,704	1,974	481	13,578	765,342

ACREAGE AND ACTUAL YIELDS OF CORN-CROPS, GRASSES, ETC., FOR THE YEARS 1898-99 TO 1907-8.

Year.	Wheat.*			Oats.*			Barley.*			Rye.*			Maize.*		
	Acres.	Yield per Acre, in Bushels.	Total Bushels.	Acres.	Yield per Acre, in Bushels.	Total Bushels.	Acres.	Yield per Acre, in Bushels.	Total Bushels.	Acres.	Yield per Acre, in Bushels.	Total Bushels.	Acres.	Yield per Acre, in Bushels.	Total Bushels.
1898-99	399,034	32.76	13,073,416	417,320	39.56	16,511,388	45,671	36.73	1,677,908	2,946	22.44	65,999	18,539	43.95	813,379
1899-00	269,749	31.81	8,581,898	398,243	40.99	16,325,832	48,003	33.02	1,585,145	2,081	25.09	52,214	17,429	38.44	668,896
1900-01	206,465	31.61	6,527,154	449,534	42.45	19,085,837	30,831	33.33	1,027,651	1,388	22.45	31,169	14,232	35.78	502,697
1901-02	163,462	24.76	4,046,589	405,924	37.06	15,045,233	26,514	32.28	855,993	1,090	26.00	27,250	12,503	45.77	571,834
1902-03	194,355	38.37	7,457,915	483,659	45.00	21,766,708	27,921	40.69	1,136,232	1,279	30.00	38,370	12,038	50.48	607,609
1903-04	230,346	34.26	7,891,654	391,640	38.57	15,107,237	34,681	33.46	1,160,504	1,176	17.00	37,250	11,156	47.53	530,291
1904-05	258,015	35.36	9,123,673	342,189	42.53	14,553,611	29,484	38.26	1,128,164	1,129	28.00	31,612	10,084	48.63	490,405
1905-06	222,183	30.60	6,798,994	354,291	35.86	12,707,982	29,644	34.54	1,024,045	1,397	38.00	63,086	10,485	60.39	633,212
1906-07	206,185	27.18	5,605,252	351,929	31.83	11,201,789	33,303	31.08	1,035,346	1,298	32.00	41,536	8,869	45.83	406,491
1907-08	193,031	28.84	5,567,139	386,885	38.82	15,021,861	36,177	32.15	1,163,406	2,958	23.9	70,702	8,869	56.74	503,301

Year.	Peas.*			Beans.*			Rye-grass.			Cocksfoot.			Potatoes.		
	Acres.	Yield per Acre, in Bushels.	Total Bushels.	Acres.	Yield per Acre, in Bushels.	Total Bushels.	Acres.	Yield per Acre, in lbs. of 20 lbs.	Total Bushels.	Acres.	Yield per Acre, in Pounds.	Total Pounds.	Acres.	Yield per Acre, in Tons.	Total Tons.
1898-99	6,334	28.17	178,420	2,624	37.31	96,574	66,295	25.01	1,657,482	46,275	150.00	6,943,039	38,604	7.73	298,561
1899-00	7,086	34.02	241,090	3,094	37.33	15,488	39,543	25.12	993,184	54,718	185.00	9,026,908	36,984	6.00	222,124
1900-01	5,888	36.38	214,211	2,927	34.29	199,964	23,270	20.44	475,418	35,758	151.00	5,401,764	28,524	5.90	169,042
1901-02	7,242	22.88	164,712	3,504	25.65	88,905	16,244	21.97	356,765	27,876	160.76	4,481,340	31,259	6.61	203,267
1902-03	8,600	34.96	300,675	3,037	29.71	90,346	27,881	20.69	576,931	27,884	243.39	6,786,844	31,408	6.15	193,878
1903-04	10,328	30.15	311,412	2,646	29.64	78,421	29,350	22.43	658,280	29,590	176.70	5,228,572	31,778	6.57	208,787
1904-05	11,426	33.09	378,195	2,545	35.34	89,964	31,682	23.95	758,387	39,707	223.90	8,890,775	26,331	5.11	134,608
1905-06	13,211	29.89	394,903	2,054	33.21	68,223	30,626	32.23	987,243	37,039	237.14	8,783,571	26,834	4.59	123,402
1906-07	11,519	29.21	336,452	1,960	37.39	73,295	25,893	22.37	579,399	31,633	183.19	5,795,915	31,289	5.42	169,875
1907-08	8,416	28.78	242,245	1,168	37.6	43,923	40,435	28.69	1,160,413	28,731	144.37	4,147,902	27,035	5.28	142,999

* For threshing only

AGRICULTURAL AND PASTORAL STATISTICS (contd.)

SUMMARY OF GRASSES, OCTOBER, 1907

ACREAGE

District.	For Feeding Down.			Hay.	Ensil- age.	For Seed.					Total Sown Grasses.	Land not ploughed : Tussock, Native Grass, and Unimproved Land.	Grand Total.
	Land ploughed.		Land not ploughed : Surface- sown Grasses.			Rye- grass.	Cocks- foot.	White Clover.	Red Clover.	Other Kinds.			
	Grasses.	Clovers.											
Auckland ..	659,850	11,529	1,133,797	14,288	246	834	1,211	28	66	3,041	1,824,890	3,056,334	4,881,224
Hawke's Bay ..	396,747	909	2,301,496	14,484	39	6,460	1,934	7,510	78	126	2,729,785	1,693,210	4,422,995
Taranaki ..	172,393	388	735,051	10,109	916	44	121	919,022	264,936	1,183,958
Wellington ..	309,414	18,313	2,396,024	18,231	109	1,271	864	361	85	423	2,745,095	1,272,351	4,017,446
Marlborough ..	90,249	600	230,000	1,813	7	317	261	17	227	83	383,574	2,368,593	2,368,593
Nelson ..	45,400	584	245,669	4,692	136	18	36	19	68	76	296,699	480,246	776,945
Westland ..	9,545	202	60,838	709	6	10	1	71,311	572,322	643,633
Canterbury ..	1,601,033	6,590	646,572	9,231	152	10,431	24,073	228,895	900	73	2,527,940	4,946,755	7,474,695
Otago ..	1,513,624	1,668	307,791	6,878	51	21,060	231	70	154	1,130	1,852,687	8,291,175	10,143,862
Totals ..	4,798,255	40,813	8,117,240	80,435	1,662	40,445	28,731	236,890	1,579	4,953	13,351,003	22,562,348	35,913,351

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The following table gives the number of live-stock in the dominion since 1898:—

TOTAL NUMBER OF HORSES, CATTLE, SHEEP, AND SWINE IN THE DOMINION

(Horses, cattle, and swine as in October of each year ; sheep as at 30th April in each year.)

Year.	Horses, Mules and Asses.	Cattle.	Dairy Cows (included in foregoing).	Sheep.	Swine.
1898 ..	258,649	1,203,024	333,536	19,673,725	193,512
1899 ..	262,390	1,222,139	355,256	19,348,506	249,751
1900 ..	266,725	1,256,680	372,416	19,355,195	250,975
1901 ..	280,078	1,361,784	381,492	20,233,099	224,024
1902 ..	287,419	1,460,663	428,773	20,342,727	193,740
1903 ..	299,182	1,593,547	468,125	18,954,553	226,591
1904 ..	314,770	1,736,850	498,241	18,280,806	255,320
1905 ..	326,966	1,810,936	517,720	19,130,875	249,727
1906 ..	343,059	1,851,750	543,927	20,108,471	242,273
1907 ..	353,257	1,816,299	541,363	20,983,772	241,128

TABLE SHOWING THE NUMBER OF SHEEP IN NORTH AND SOUTH ISLANDS OF THE DOMINION SINCE 1898

Year ending 30th April.	North Island.	South Island.	Totals.
1898	9,864,945	9,808,780	19,673,725
1899	9,953,399	9,395,107	19,348,506
1900	9,998,173	9,357,022	19,355,195
1901	10,218,945	10,014,154	20,233,099
1902	10,286,346	10,056,381	20,342,727
1903	9,433,831	9,520,722	18,954,553
1904	9,203,963	9,076,843	18,280,806
1905	9,388,605	9,742,270	19,130,875
1906	10,009,731	10,098,740	20,108,471
1907	10,854,018	10,129,754	20,983,772
1908	11,632,201	10,816,852	22,449,053

AGRICULTURAL AND PASTORAL STATISTICS (contd.)

CATTLE

SUMMARY OF TOTALS IN THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS

District.	Bulls.	Cows or Heifers (calved or to calve) for Dairy Purposes only.	Cows or Heifers (calved or to calve) kept solely for Breeding.	Heifers over Two Years Old included for Dairying.	Heifers over Two Years Old included for Breeding only.	Heifers under Two Years Old.	Cows or Heifers intended for Fatening.	Steers over Two Years Old.	Steers under Two Years Old.	Total.
Auckland ..	7,283	128,882	28,698	19,146	12,100	74,022	24,694	92,478	74,276	461,579
Hawke's Bay ..	4,126	32,135	72,529	7,186	22,567	37,469	13,210	61,420	41,447	292,109
Taranaki ..	5,158	126,750	6,681	11,255	2,457	43,387	12,323	30,498	28,412	266,591
Wellington ..	6,244	101,427	54,848	8,478	17,510	54,107	21,623	77,048	48,506	388,791
Marlborough ..	417	5,255	614	630	292	3,083	2,045	3,385	3,275	18,976
Nelson ..	605	10,919	1,194	1,365	494	5,298	3,148	4,266	4,396	31,677
Westland ..	343	4,339	2,577	797	1,137	2,706	1,631	4,309	2,882	20,521
Canterbury ..	2,205	49,775	2,377	3,286	1,139	20,407	8,666	15,874	15,451	119,180
Otago ..	3,784	81,881	10,473	6,857	4,174	38,346	13,593	31,306	27,161	215,575
Totals 1907 ..	30,165	541,363	179,961	59,000	61,860	276,825	100,933	320,587	245,605	1,816,299
1906 ..	31,405	549,927	179,267	60,210	60,018	294,967	84,145	315,558	282,253	1,851,750
Increase ..	1,240	2,564	684	1,210	1,842	18,142	16,788	5,029	38,648	35,451
Decrease

NUMBER OF SHEEP IN EACH DISTRICT ON THE 30TH APRIL IN EACH YEAR FROM 1898 TO 1907

District.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.
Auckland ..	898,515	923,967	880,189	880,377	879,852	784,043	685,799	619,337	632,017	785,710
Napier-Gisborne ..	4,525,348	4,542,310	4,620,745	4,534,638	4,631,151	4,419,419	4,482,877	4,584,165	4,857,640	5,119,901
Wellington-West Coast ..	4,441,082	4,487,122	4,497,239	4,803,930	4,775,343	4,230,369	4,035,287	4,185,103	4,520,074	4,948,407
Marlborough-Nelson ..	936,936	872,218	894,010	933,088	955,574	927,483	937,488	954,249	1,048,567	1,122,440
Canterbury-Kaikoura ..	4,910,385	4,807,404	4,716,262	5,103,055	5,135,465	4,960,474	4,778,612	5,240,253	5,261,893	5,147,340
Otago ..	3,961,459	3,715,485	3,746,750	3,978,011	3,965,342	3,632,765	3,360,743	3,547,768	3,788,280	3,859,974
Totals ..	19,673,725	19,348,506	19,355,195	20,233,099	20,342,727	18,954,553	18,280,806	19,130,875	20,108,471	20,983,772

FLOCK OWNERS—YEARS 1898 TO 1907

Owning:—	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.
1 to 200 ..	8,176	8,151	7,460	6,849	7,035	7,748	7,562	6,953	6,923	7,025
201 " 500 ..	4,710	4,568	4,779	4,851	4,926	4,680	4,615	4,592	4,870	4,969
501 " 1,000 ..	2,708	2,856	2,810	3,059	3,158	2,923	2,809	3,120	3,431	3,661
1,001 " 2,500 ..	1,798	1,880	1,971	2,189	2,232	2,061	2,078	2,350	2,558	2,733
2,501 " 5,000 ..	614	639	650	688	730	670	664	734	782	811
5,001 " 7,500 ..	222	221	228	280	255	229	250	246	280	286
7,501 " 10,000 ..	119	142	124	137	130	113	112	128	134	145
10,001 " 20,000 ..	231	204	196	189	206	207	199	203	213	230
20,001 and over ..	144	138	139	138	131	110	104	97	94	87
Total	18,722	18,599	18,357	18,360	18,803	18,761	18,493	18,423	19,265	19,977

APPENDIX III

AVERAGE RATES OF WAGES IN EACH PROVINCIAL DISTRICT OF NEW ZEALAND DURING THE YEAR 1907

Description of Labour.	Auckland.	Taranaki.	Hawke's Bay.	Wellington.	Martinsborough.	Nelson.	Westland (Goldfield).	Canterbury.	Otago (Part Goldfield).
1. AGRICULTURAL LABOUR.									
Farm labourers :—									
With board, per week ..	20/ to 25/	20/ to 25/	25/ to 27/6	20/ to 25/	25/ to 27/6	20/	25/ to 30/	20/ to 25/	20/ to 25/
Without board, per day	7/ to 8/	..	8/	7/ to 8/	6/ to 8/
Ploughmen :—									
With board, per week ..	25/ to 27/6	25/ to 30/	27/6 to 30/	25/ to 30/	25/ to 27/6	25/	30/ to 40/	22/6 to 27/6	20/ to 30/
Without board, per day	8/	..	8/	..	8/	6/ to 8/	8/
Harvesters :—									
With board, per week ..	25/	48/	30/ to 40/	25/ to 30/	40/ to 50/	40/ to 50/	40/ to 50/
Without board, per day ..	1/ per hour	1/9 per hr.	8/	1/ to 1/3 pr hour	1/ per hr.	8/	8/	8/6 to 10/	1/6 per hr.
Men cooks on farms :—									
With board, per week ..	20/ to 30/	25/	25/ to 30/	20/ to 30/	20/ to 30/	25/	30/ to 40/	20/ to 30/	20/ to 40/
Female farm servants :—									
With board, per week ..	12/ to 17/6	17/6 to 20/	15/ to 20/	15/ to 25/	12/ to 15/	15/	15/	12/6 to 20/	10/ to 18/
2. PASTORAL LABOUR.									
Shepherds, with board per annum ..	£52 to £78	£78 to £83	£65 to £78	£60 to £80	£65 to £90	..	£52 to £65	£65 to £80	£60 to £80
Stock-keepers, with board per annum ..	£52 to £65	£70	£60 to £78	£65 to £80	£78	..	£52 to £65	£65 to £80	£65 to £75
Station labourers :—									
With board, per week ..	20/ to 25/	20/ to 25/	20/ to 25/	20/ to 25/	20/ to 25/	25/	20/ to 30/	20/ to 25/	20/ to 25/
Without board, per day

APPENDIX III (contd.) AVERAGE RATES OF WAGES IN EACH PROVINCIAL DISTRICT OF NEW ZEALAND DURING THE YEAR 1907

Description of Labour	Auckland.	Taranaki.	Hawke's Bay.	Welling- ton.	Marl- borough.	Nelson.	Westland (Goldfield).	Canter- bury.	Otago (Part Goldfield).
Shearers, with board, per 100 sheep shorn	17/6 to 20/	20/	20/	17/6 to 22/6	16/6 to 20/	18/6	20/	16/8 to 20/	15/ to 20/
Men cooks on stations, with board, per week ..	20/ to 30/	30/	25/ to 30/	25/ to 30/	20/ to 30/	20/ to 30/	30/	25/ to 30/	25/ to 30/
3. ARTISAN LABOUR (per day without board).									
Masons	10/ to 14/	12/ to 15/	11/ to 14/	12/ to 14/	12/	14/	12/	11/ to 12/	12/ to 15/
Plasterers	12/ to 13/	12/ to 14/	15/	12/ to 14/	12/	14/	12/	12/ to 13/	12/ to 14/
Bricklayers	12/ to 14/	12/ to 14/	12/ to 15/	12/ to 12/8	11/ to 12/	12/ to 14/	12/ to 15/	12/ to 13/	12/ to 14/
Carpenters	10/ to 12/	12/ to 14/	10/ to 12/	10/ to 12/	10/ to 11/	10/ to 12/	12/ to 14/	10/8 to 12/	10/8 to 12/
Smiths	9/ to 11/	9/6 to 10/	10/ to 12/	10/ to 12/	8/ to 11/	9/ to 11/	11/ to 12/6	9/ to 10/	9/ to 12/
Shipwrights	10/	10/	..	11/8	10/8 to 12/	10/ to 12/
Plumbers	9/ to 10/	9/ to 10/	9/6 to 11/	10/ to 12/	9/4 to 10/	10/ to 10/6	10/ to 11/	10/ to 11/	9/ to 12/
Painters	9/ to 10/	10/ to 10/	10/ to 11/	9/4 to 10/	9/4 to 10/	10/	9/ to 12/	10/ to 11/	9/ to 12/
Saddlers	8/ to 10/	8/ to 9/	8/ to 10/	8/ to 10/	8/ to 8/6	7/6 to 8/4	8/	8/ to 9/	8/ to 10/
Shoemakers	7/6 to 8/6	7/6 to 8/6	8/6 to 10/	8/ to 10/	8/ to 10/	7/	8/4 to 10/	7/6 to 9/	7/6 to 10/
Coopers	7/6 to 10/	9/ to 10/	9/ to 10/	10/ to 11/	10/	10/	9/ to 10/	9/6	10/
Watchmakers	8/ to 10/	10/	10/	10/ to 12/	10/ to 12/	10/	10/ to 12/	8/4 to 11/6	8/4 to 12/
Wheelwrights	9/ to 11/	9/6 to 10/	10/ to 12/	10/ to 11/8	10/ to 12/	9/ to 11/	10/ to 12/6	10/ to 12/	10/ to 12/
4. SERVANTS.									
Married couples without family, with board, per annum	£75 to £85	£75 to £90	£80 to £85	£75 to £100	£70 to £90	£95	£75	£70 to £100	£75 to £90
Married couples with family, with board, per annum	£70	..	£75 to £80	£75 to £90	£85 to £90	£95	..	£70 to £85	£70 to £85
Married couples with family, with board, per annum ..	15/ to 25/	15/ to 25/	25/ to 27/6	20/ to 30/	20/ to 25/	..	20/ to 25/	20/ to 30/	20/ to 30/
Groomsmen, with board, per week	20/ to 22/6	25/	27/6 to 30/	20/ to 25/	25/	25/ to 30/	25/ to 30/
Gardeners :—	5/ to 8/	8/	8/	7/ to 8/	..	7/	7/ to 9/	8/	8/
Without board, per day ..	20/ to 30/	25/ to 30/	20/ to 30/	20/ to 30/	25/ to 40/	25/	25/ to 30/	20/ to 30/	15/ to 40/
Cooks, with board, per week ..	15/ to 20/	20/	15/ to 20/	17/6 to 25/	15/ to 20/	15/ to 20/	15/ to 30/
Laundresses, with board, per week

APPENDIX III (contd.)

AVERAGE RATES OF WAGES IN EACH PROVINCIAL DISTRICT OF NEW ZEALAND DURING THE YEAR 1907

Description of Labour.	Auckland.	Taranaki.	Hawke's Bay.	Wellington.	Marlborough.	Nelson.	Westland (Goldfield).	Canterbury.	Otago (Part Goldfield).
General house servants, with board, per week	12/ to 15/	12/6	12/ to 18/	12/ to 15/	12/6 to 20/	15/ to 17/6	12/ to 15/	12/ to 17/6	10/ to 18/
Housemaids, with board, per week	12/ to 15/	14/ to 15/	10/ to 15/	12/6 to 17/6	15/	15/	12/ to 15/	12/6 to 15/	10/ to 18/
Nursemaids, with board, per week	5/ to 10/	7/ to 7/6	8/ to 12/	7/6 to 12/	8/ to 15/	10/	5/ to 12/	10/ to 15/	7/ to 15/
Needlewomen :—	21/	10/ to 15/	17/6 to 20/	15/ to 20/	..	24/	20/	12/ to 25/	15/ to 20/
With board, per week	2/6 to 5/	..	4/6 to 6/	4/ to 5/	3/6 to 5/	..	3/ to 6/	3/6 to 4/	3/ to 3/6
Without board, per day (lunch always provided)	6/8 to 8/6	9/	8/ to 9/	7/ to 9/	8/ to 9/	8/ to 9/	8/ to 10/	7/6 to 9/	8/ to 10/
5. MISCELLANEOUS.									
General labourers, without board, per day	3/ to 4/	3/6 to 4/6	2/6 to 3/6	3/6	120/ to 160/	130/ to 170/	120/ to 130/	3/ to 3/6	2/3 to 3/6
Stonebreakers, without board, per cubic yard	100/ to 130/	..	130/	130/ to 140/	9/ to 10/	10/ to 11/	10/ to 11/	110/ to 140/	130/ to 160/
Seamen, with board, per month	8/ to 10/	10/ to 11/	10/ to 11/	9/4 to 10/	10/ to 11/	10/ to 11/	10/ to 12/6	10/	10/ to 11/
Miners without board, per day	8/ to 12/	9/	9/ to 10/	10/	10/	8/ to 10/	8/	10/	9/ to 12/
Engine-drivers	8/4 to 10/	25/ to 30/	30/ to 32/6	25/ to 40/	30/	22/6 to 35/	20/ to 30/	25/ to 30/	24/ to 35/
Tailors	25/ to 30/	15/ to 42/	30/	20/ to 40/	27/ to 30/	25/ to 30/	30/	21/ to 30/	20/ to 35/
Tailoresses	24/ to 40/	30/ to 50/	30/ to 35/	25/ to 35/	40/	30/ to 50/	20/ to 60/	24/ to 40/	20/ to 60/
Dressmakers	30/ to 45/	27/6 to 36/	21/ to 36/	20/ to 30/	15/ to 25/	22/6	20/ to 25/	25/ to 30/	20/ to 30/
Milliners	22/6 to 40/	48/ to 70/	60/ to 72/	40/ to 60/	55/ to 100/	48/ to 50/	50/ to 80/	40/ to 60/	40/ to 80/
Machinists	42/ to 60/	40/	45/ to 60/	30/ to 50/	30/ to 60/	50/	40/ to 50/	30/ to 48/	30/ to 60/
Storekeepers	24/ to 45/	40/ to 42/	45/ to 60/	30/ to 60/	30/ to 60/	50/	30/ to 50/	36/ to 60/	30/ to 60/
" assistants	24/ to 45/	39/ to 45/	45/ to 60/	30/ to 60/	30/ to 60/	45/	40/ to 50/	40/ to 60/	30/ to 60/
Drapers' assistants	24/ to 50/	45/6 to 50/	48/ to 60/	45/ to 60/	45/ to 60/	50/	40/ to 60/	40/ to 70/	42/ to 70/
Grocers' assistants	50/ to 60/	48/ to 50/	48/ to 60/	45/ to 60/	50/ to 60/	47/6 to 55/	40/ to 65/	40/ to 60/	45/ to 60/
Butchers	50/ to 60/	42/ to 50/	45/ to 60/	45/ to 50/	42/ to 60/	50/	50/	40/ to 60/	40/ to 60/
Bakers	45/ to 54/	50/ to 54/	48/ to 60/	45/ to 60/	48/ to 70/	50/	40/ to 60/	40/ to 60/	40/ to 60/
Storemen	42/ to 60/	54/	50/ to 66/	54/ to 60/	54/	..	54/	60/ to 65/	48/ to 66/
Compositors	40/ to 60/	..	50/	54/ to 60/	60/	48/ to 66/
Sawmill hands	40/ to 60/	..	50/	54/ to 60/	60/	48/ to 66/
Flax-mill hands	40/ to 54/	..	50/	54/	30/ to 48/

APPENDIX III (*contd.*)
AVERAGE PRICES OF PRODUCE, LIVE-STOCK, PROVISIONS, ETC., IN EACH PROVINCIAL DISTRICT OF
NEW ZEALAND DURING THE YEAR 1907

Articles.	Auckland.	Taranaki.	Hawke's Bay.	Wellington.	Marlborough.	Nelson.	Westland (Goldfield).	Canterbury.	Otago (Part Goldfield).
I. AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE									
Wheat ... per bushel (60lb.)	5/3 to 6/6	5/6 to 6/	5/6 to 6/6	5/6 to 6/	4/3 to 6/	5/ to 8/	6/ to 6/6	4/9 to 6/	4/9 to 6/
Barley ... " (47lb.)	4/ to 5/	3/9 to 4/6	3/6 to 4/9	4/3 to 5/	5/	4/ to 4/6	4/6 to 5/	4/ to 4/6	4/ to 4/6
Oats ... " (40lb.)	3/6 to 4/6	3/6 to 3/10	4/	3/11 to 4/6	4/	4/ to 4/6	4/6	3/6 to 4/	3/3 to 4/
Maize ... " (56lb.)	4/6 to 5/3	5/	4/6 to 5/6	5/ to 5/6	5/ to 5/6	5/ to 5/6	5/6	3/ to 5/6	4/6 to 4/10
Brass ... " (20lb.)	1/1 to 1/6	1/3 to 1/6	1/ to 1/6	1/ to 1/9	1/9	1/2 to 1/6	1/3 to 1/6	1/ to 1/4	1/ to 1/6
Hay ... " ton ..	80/ to 120/	60/	75/ to 100/	80/ to 120/	65/ to 90/	80/ to 100/	110/ to 120/	60/ to 110/	60/ to 100/
II. FLOUR AND BREAD.									
Flour, wholesale									
per ton of 2,000 lb.	250/ to 280/	220/ to 270/	245/ to 280/	235/ to 280/	240/ to 260/	235/ to 240/	245/ to 260/	230/ to 280/	220/ to 280/
Flour, retail per bag of 50 lb.	6/9 to 7/6	6/ to 8/	7/3 to 7/6	6/6 to 7/6	6/9 to 7/9	6/ to 6/9	7/6	6/9 to 7/6	6/6 to 8/
Bread ... " 4lb. loaf ..	7d.	7d. to 7 1/2d.	7 1/2d. to 8d.	7d. to 8d.	7d.	7d.	8d. to 9d.	7d.	7d. to 8 1/2d.
III. LIVE STOCK AND MEAT									
Horses, draught... per head	£25 to £50	£35	£35 to £50	£30 to £45	£35 to £50	£35	£45 to £60	£27 10/ to £35	£30 to £45
Horses, saddle and harness ... per head	£10 to £30	£12 to £20	£10 to £25	£10 to £25	£18 to £25	£12	£12 to £30	£12 to £22	£12 to £27 10/
Cattle, fat .. " "	140/ to 200/	120/ to 180/	150/ to 160/	140/ to 170/	120/ to 160/	150/ to 160/	180/ to 210/	140/ to 215/	150/ to 240/
Cattle, milch cows .. " "	100/ to 200/	100/ to 120/	85/ to 170/	100/ to 140/	100/ to 180/	100/ to 140/	120/ to 140/	100/ to 160/	100/ to 200/
Sheep, fat .. " "	19/ to 24/	16/ to 22/	15/ to 17/	15/ to 18/	15/ to 18/	17/8 to 20/	17/ to 23/	14/ to 20/	16/ to 25/
Lambs, fat .. " "	13/ to 16/	12/6 to 14/	12/ to 13/6	12/6 to 15/	11/ to 14/	11/ to 14/	12/ to 15/6	13/ to 17/	13/6 to 18/

APPENDIX III (contd.)

AVERAGE PRICES OF PRODUCE, LIVE-STOCK, PROVISIONS, ETC., IN EACH PROVINCIAL DISTRICT OF NEW ZEALAND DURING THE YEAR 1907

Articles.	Auckland.	Taranaki.	Hawke's Bay.	Wellington.	Marlborough.	Nelson.	Westland (Goldfield).	Canterbury.	Otago (Part Goldfield).
Butchers' meat :—									
Beef per lb. ...	4d. to 5d.	4d. to 5d.	4d. to 5d.	5d. to 6d.	4d. to 6d.	5d. to 8d.	5d. to 6d.	4d. to 6d.	4d. to 7d.
Mutton " .. "	4d. to 6d.	4d. to 6d.	4d. to 6d.	4d. to 5½d.	4d. to 5½d.	4d. to 6d.	4d. to 5½d.	4d. to 5½d.	4d. to 6d.
Veal " .. "	4d. to 6d.	4½d. to 5d.	5d. to 6d.	4½d. to 6d.	5d. to 6d.	4d. to 6d.	4d. to 6d.	4d. to 6d.	4d. to 6d.
Pork " .. "	6d.	6d.	6d.	6d. to 7d.	5d. to 6d.	6d. to 7d.	6d. to 7d.	7d. to 8d.	6d. to 8d.
Lamb " .. "	6d. to 7½d.	6d. to 7d.	6d. to 8d.	6d. to 8d.	6d.	7d. to 8d.	7d.	6d. to 8d.	5d. to 8d.
IV. DAIRY PRODUCE.									
Butter, factory made per lb. ...	1/ to 1/2	1/1	1/ to 1/2	1/ to 1/2	1/ to 1/2	1/1	1/1 to 1/3	1/ to 1/1	1/ to 1/1
Butter, fresh dairy	10d.	10d.	..	10d.	10d.	10d.	..	10d.	10d. to 11d.
Butter, salt	6d. to 9d.	8d. to 9d.	9d. to 10d.	8d. to 10d.	7d. to 10d.	8d.	8d. to 9d.	7d. to 11d.	7d. to 11d.
Cheese, colonial	1/ to 2/	2/	1/9 to 2/	8d. to 9d.	6½d. to 8d.	8d.	1/6	1/ to 3/	1/6
Cheese, imported	3d. to 4d.	3d.	3d.	3d. to 4d.	3d. to 4d.	3½d. to 5d.	4½d. to 5d.	3d. to 4d.	3d. to 4d.
Milk " .. qt. ...									
V. FARM-YARD PRODUCE.									
Geese per pair	7/ to 12/	6/	5/ to 8/	7/ to 10/	8/6 to 9/6	5/ to 10/	12/	6/ to 9/	9/
Ducks " .. "	4/ to 5/6	5/	4/ to 5/	5/ to 6/	4/ to 5/6	4/6 to 7/	6/ to 7/	3/6 to 6/	4/ to 7/
Fowls " .. "	3/6 to 5/	3/6 to 4/	3/ to 4/	2/6 to 5/	2/6 to 3/6	3/ to 3/6	4/ to 5/	2/6 to 5/	2/6 to 5/
Turkeys " .. head	7/6 to 12/6	7/6 to 10/	5/6 to 7/6	5/ to 10/	4/6 to 10/	6/ to 10/	10/	6/ to 10/	6/ to 11/
Bacon " .. lb. ...	8d. to 9d.	9d.	8½d. to 11d.	7d. to 10d.	7d. to 11d.	8½d. to 10d.	9d. to 9½d.	8d. to 11d.	9d. to 11d.
Ham " .. "	8d. to 10d.	9d. to 10d.	9½d. to 1/	8½d. to 11d.	8d. to 11d.	10d. to 10½d.	9½d. to 1/	9d. to 1/	10d. to 1/
Eggs " .. doz.	10d. to 1/2	1/ to 1/1	1/ to 1/6	1/ to 1/3	1/1 to 1/2	1/1 to 1/6	1/6	11d. to 1/3	10d. to 1/2
VI. GARDEN PRODUCE.									
Potatoes, wholesale per ton	200/ to 280/	140/ to 180/	250/	160/ to 200/	300/	210/	200/ to 240/	180/	180/ to 300/
Potatoes, retail cwt.	12/ to 18/	10/	15/	10/ to 12/	18/	12/	12/ to 17/6	10/	11/ to 20/
Onions " .. lb. ...	1½d. to 2d.	1½d. to 2d.	1½d. to 2d.	1d. to 2d.	2d.	1½d. to 2d.	2d. to 2½d.	1d. to 2½d.	1d. to 4d.
Carrots .. per doz. bnchs.	1/ to 2/	1/	1/ to 2/	1/ to 2/	1/ to 3/	2/ to 3/	1/6 to 2/	9d. to 1/6	1/ to 3/
Turnips " .. "	1/6 to 3/	1/	1/ to 2/	1/ to 2/	1/ to 3/	2/ to 2/6	1/6 to 2/	9d. to 1/6	1/ to 3/
Cabbages per doz.	2/ to 2/6	3/	2/ to 3/	2/ to 3/	2/6 to 4/	2/ to 4/	3/6 to 6/	1/6 to 3/6	1/ to 3/

APPENDIX III (contd.)

AVERAGE PRICES OF PRODUCE, LIVE-STOCK, PROVISIONS, ETC., IN EACH PROVINCIAL DISTRICT OF NEW ZEALAND DURING THE YEAR 1907

Articles.	Auckland.	Taranaki.	Hawke's Bay.	Wellington.	Marlborough.	Nelson.	Westland (Goldfield).	Canterbury.	Otago (Part Goldfield).
VII. MISCELLANEOUS.									
Tea per lb. ...	1/ to 2/3	2/ to 2/2	1/3 to 2/6	1/6 to 2/	1/8 to 2/4	1/10	1/6 to 2/	1/6 to 1/8	1/ to 2/
Coffee " "	1/4 to 1/8	1/10 to 2/	1/8 to 1/10	1/6 to 1/10	1/9 to 2/	1/9	1/6 to 1/10	1/4 to 1/9	1/6 to 1/9
Sugar " "	2d. to 2 1/2d.	2d. to 2 1/2d.	2d. to 3d.	2d. to 3d.	2d. to 3d.	2 1/2d.	2 1/2d. to 3d.	2d. to 2 1/2d.	2d. to 2 1/2d.
Rice " "	2d. to 3d.	2 1/2d.	2d. to 3d.	2d. to 3d.	2 1/2d. to 3d.	2 1/2d.	3d.	2d. to 2 1/2d.	2d. to 3d.
Salt " "	1d.	1d.	1d.	1d.	1d.	1d.	1d.	1d.	1d.
Soap " cwt.	10/ to 36/	20/	20/ to 28/	17/6 to 27/	24/ to 26/	20/ to 24/	14/ to 26/	9/6 to 28/	12/ to 30/
Candles " lb. ...	6d. to 8d.	7 1/2d. to 8d.	6d. to 8d.	6 1/2d. to 8d.	7d. to 8d.	7d.	6d. to 8d.	6d. to 8d.	5 1/2d. to 9d.
Tobacco " "	5/3 to 5/6	6/ to 6/6	5/3 to 5/9	5/ to 6/	6/ to 6/8	5/6	5/6	5/6 to 6/	4/11 to 8/
Coal " ton	21/6 to 36/	45/ to 48/	35/ to 50/	36/ to 45/	38/ to 47/6	22/ to 32/	20/ to 36/	32/ to 40/	19/ to 40/
Firewood " cord	10/ to 30/	32/	17/6 to 35/	22/6 to 39/6	20/ to 32/6	12/6 to 30/	16/ to 30/	30/ to 40/	16/ to 40/
VIII. BEER, WINES, SPIRITS.									
Beer, colonial ... per bhd.	72/ to 86/6	85/ to 87/6	84/6 to 100/	80/ to 91/6	84/ to 120/	80/ to 90/	80/ to 90/	80/ to 90/	80/ to 110/
Beer, English, bott'd per doz. qts.	19/ to 24/	15/	15/	13/ to 16/6	18/ to 24/	15/	14/6 to 16/	13/6 to 18/	14/6 to 20/
Brandy " "	26/ to 36/	32/	27/ to 31/	25/ to 30/	27/ to 30/	26/	24/ to 28/	27/ to 35/	24/ to 36/
Rum " "	25/ to 31/	25/	25/ to 30/	22/ to 28/	25/ to 30/	24/	24/ to 25/	25/ to 30/	21/ to 30/
Whisky " "	25/ to 36/	30/	28/ to 31/	26/ to 30/	26/ to 35/	25/ to 29/	23/ to 25/	26/ to 30/	24/ to 28/
Gin " "	20/ to 36/	24/ to 35/	30/	21/ to 30/	24/ to 28/	19/ to 24/	19/ to 30/	23/ to 33/	19/ to 30/
Wine, Australian "	16/ to 31/	18/	15/ to 20/	14/ to 19/	17/ to 24/	13/6 to 15/	15/	17/6 to 28/	15/ to 27/
Wine, European "	18/ to 36/	22/	20/ to 40/	20/ to 40/	24/ to 36/	15/6 to 16/	18/ to 20/	17/6 to 30/	16/ to 30/

APPENDIX IV

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS

(a) Imports

THE value of the imports for 1898, exclusive of specie, was £8,211,409, while that for 1907 was £16,539,707. It will thus be seen that in a period of ten years there was an increase of over 100 per cent. in value.

The true value of a comparison of the imports in a series of years is shown by the following table in which specie is excluded:—

IMPORTS PER HEAD OF MEAN EUROPEAN POPULATION

Year.	Value.		
	£	s.	d.
1898	11	3	1
1899	11	9	8
1900	13	7	4
1901	14	11	11
1902	13	14	8
1903	14	14	5
1904	15	15	4
1905	14	6	11
1906	15	19	5
1907	17	19	11

One fact must be borne in mind in connection with this matter of value of imports, which is, that the industries of New Zealand have at the same time increased considerably.

The value of the imports from different countries for the years 1906 and 1907 is shown below.

Year.	United Kingdom.	British Colonies and Possessions.	Foreign States.
1906	£9,003,229	£3,886,787	£2,321,387
1907	£10,278,019	£4,664,164	£2,360,678

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The increase of value in 1907 is thus :—

United Kingdom	£1,274,790
British Colonies and Possessions	£777,377
Foreign States	£39,261

(b) Exports

The value of all the exports in 1907 was £20,068,957. The value of New Zealand produce exported was £19,783,138, which gives an average of £21 10s. 6d. per head of the population.

The excess of exports over imports was £2,766,096.

The following table shows the value of exports to different countries during the years 1906 and 1907.

Year.	United Kingdom.	British Colonies and Possessions.	Foreign States.
1906	£14,047,176	£3,141,327	£906,634
1907	£16,533,493	£2,559,631	£975,883

The re-exports of merchandise for the year 1907 were valued at £278,503.

The quantities and values of some of the principal articles exported in 1907 were as follows :—

Article.	Quantity.	Value.
Wool.. ..	171,635,595 lbs.	£7,657,278
Frozen Meat .	2,354,808 cwt.	3,420,664
Butter ..	328,441 cwt.	1,615,345
Cheese ..	236,883 cwt.	662,355
Timber ..	72,154,417 s. ft.	311,862
Gold ..	508,210 oz.	2,027,490
Phoemium Fibre	28,547 tons	832,068
Kauri Gum ..	8,708 tons	579,888

The rise in the export of Frozen Meat, Butter, and Cheese in the ten years ended on December 31st, 1907, is remarkable.

APPENDIX IV

Year.	FROZEN MEAT. Quantity.	Value.
1897	157,687,152 lbs.	£1,566,286
1907	263,738,496 lbs.	3,420,664
	BUTTER.	
1897	99,002 cwt.	£402,605
1907	328,441 cwt.	1,615,345
	CHEESE.	
1897	77,683 cwt.	£150,517
1907	236,883 cwt.	662,355

TOTAL VALUE OF TRADE

The value of the total trade, exclusive of specie, for the years 1897 and 1907 is shown below :—

Year.	Imports.	Exports.	Total Value.
1897	£7,994,201	£9,741,222	£17,735,423
1907	16,539,707	20,061,641	36,601,348

The trade per head of the mean European population for the same years was :—

Year.	Value.
1897	£24 11s. 7d.
1907	£39 16s. 6d.

The trade with the United Kingdom in 1897 represented 75·04 per cent. of the total and in 1907, 71·74 per cent. The value of the trade with the United States and Germany for the years 1898 and 1907 is shown below :—

UNITED STATES.		GERMANY.	
Year.	Value.	Year.	Value.
1898	£1,423,544	1898	£170,346
1907	2,139,659	1907	418,123

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The expansion of trade with Japan since 1897 is as follows :—

Year.	Value.
1897	£30,289
1907	95,765

APPENDIX V

SHIPPING

THERE has been a considerable increase in the tonnage of shipping, both inwards and outwards, during the last ten years, but the number of vessels has remained nearly the same.

The following table shows both the tonnage and number of ships entered, and cleared during the years 1898 and 1907 :—

ENTERED

Year.	British.		Colonial.		Foreign.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
1898	152	329,065	399	369,840	69	66,350
1907	194	636,456	400	548,916	51	68,894

The total number of vessels and tonnage was :—

Year.	Vessels.	Tons.
1898	620	765,255
1907	645	1,254,266

CLEARED

Year.	British.		Colonial.		Foreign.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
1898	150	322,150	403	377,102	69	66,541
1907	185	625,006	383	537,234	47	63,142

The total number of vessels and tonnage was :—

Year.	Vessels.	Tons.
1898	622	765,793
1907	615	1,225,382

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The Coastal Shipping entered and cleared coastwise was in 1907 :—

			Entered.	Tons.
Sailing vessels	4,479	260,028
Steamers	20,794	10,981,579
			Cleared.	Tons.
Sailing Vessels	4,402	255,532
Steamers	20,695	10,913,497

The number of vessels both entered and cleared coastwise in the years 1897 and 1907 respectively were as follows :—

ENTERED

Year.	Sailing Vessels. No.	Tons.	Steamers. No.	Tons.
1897	4,552	294,296	15,476	5,168,977
1907	4,479	260,028	20,794	10,981,579
		CLEARED		
1897	4,472	296,094	15,606	5,150,055
1907	4,402	255,532	20,695	10,913,497

The particulars regarding vessels registered in the dominion on December 31st in each of the years 1897 and 1907 are shown below :—

SAILING VESSELS

Year.	No.	Gross Tonnage.	Net Tonnage.
1897	318	40,773	39,743
1907	323	46,373	43,967
		STEAMERS	
1897	188	79,980	47,806
1907	305	150,628	88,629

APPENDIX VI

POSTAL AND ELECTRIC TELEGRAPH

At the close of 1907 there were 2,064 post-offices.

The table below shows the number of letters, post cards, newspapers, parcels, etc., handled in 1906 and 1907.

				Total Number.	
				1906.	1907.
Letters	77,402,197	83,600,316
Letter-cards	1,682,369	1,814,241
Post cards	5,792,808	6,722,016
Books and packets	23,894,209	23,781,665
Newspapers	23,716,431	25,417,073
Parcels	448,171	801,937

Money-orders to the value of £1,773,591 were issued. Those payable in the dominion from places beyond New Zealand amounted to £132,151.

Postal notes to the value of £347,300 were sold.

The mail services between England and New Zealand resulted in a loss to the dominion as shown below :—

San Francisco Service : Loss	£,3051
Peninsular and Oriental and Orient Services : Loss	£4,700

TELEGRAPH AND TELEPHONE

At the end of March, 1908, there were 9,656 miles of telegraph-line open carrying 29,344 miles of wire. During the year 7,042,293 telegrams were despatched. The private and press messages numbered 6,958,279. On the 31st of March, 1908, there were thirty-nine central telephone exchanges and eighty-two sub-exchanges. The capital expended on telephone exchanges up to March 31st, 1908, was £508,408.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The great boon which New Zealanders obtained by the adoption by the dominion of universal penny postage on January 1st, 1891, may be gathered from the following figures :—

			Number dealt with.	
			1900.	1901.
Letters	38,662,296	51,544,265
Newspapers..	17,045,715	18,973,632

APPENDIX VII PRELIMINARY EXPENSES APPROXIMATE COST OF CLEARING A BUSH FARM AND ERECTING BUILDINGS.

Table compiled from the *Immigrants' Guide*, published in 1906 by direction of the
Honble. Minister of Lands.

Land Districts.	The Forest.		The New Pasture.		Five-Roomed House, lined, and with Brick Chimney.	Four-stall Stable, 35 ft. + 22 ft., with Feed Room and Shed.
	Felling Bush.	Clearing. Logging up.	Burning.	Time in months between Forest and first Grass fit for Stock.		
Auckland ..	£1 to 35/	£1 to £3		8-24	£150-£200	£80-£120
Taranaki ..	23/	£1		12-15	£200-£250	£150-£160
Hawke's Bay	15/ to £2	2/ to 10/		10-18	£200-£300	£50-£100
Wellington ..	15/ to £2	£1 5/ to £5		12-18	£150-£300	£25-£100
Marlborough	£1 to 30/	10/ to £1		9-12	£120-£275	£30-£60
Westland ..	30/	..		6 mos. after favourable burn	£200	£75
Nelson ..	15/ to £2	£1 to £4		12-18	£150-£200	£40-£100
Canterbury ..	£1 to 27/	..	Variable	12-24	£200-£300	£80-£190
Otago ..	30/ to 35/	15/ to £1		—	£140-£200	£75-£120
Southland ..	£1 to 30/	10/ to £1		Variable	£175-£260	£50-£75

The cost of logging up varies according to the size of the timber and in the case of Wellington
and Nelson includes stumping.

APPENDIX VIII PARTICULARS AS TO STEAMSHIP ROUTES

Route.	Port of Embarkation.	Port of Final Call in England.	Port of Arrival.	How often Run.	Average number of days between England and N.Z.	Fares to New Zealand.		
						1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class.
Direct to New Zealand :— N.Z. Shipping Company ..	London	Plymouth	{ Auckland, Wellington, Lyttelton, or Port Chalmers }	Fort- nightly	42	£64 to £74	£38 to £43	£17 to £21
Shaw, Savill and Albion Company Via Suez Canal and Aus- tralia :—	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	42	£64 to £74	£38 to £43	£17 to £24
Penninsular and Oriental S.S. Company Orient Company Nord Deutscher Lloyd Co.	London Do. { Southampton or Grimsby Marseilles Liverpool or Southampton }			Do. Do. Monthly	Varies according to time of day in Australia 8 to 37	£70 to £80 £70 to £80 £70 to £80	£43 to £46 £43 to £46 £43 to £46	None £18 to £22 £16 to £18
Messageries Maritimes .. Federal-Holder Shire Line Via Vancouver by Canadian Pacific Route			Auckland	Monthly Do.		£80 £80 £68 10/ to £76	£46 None £38 to £45	None £16 to £21 £29 10/-

APPENDIX IX

PRINCIPAL PUBLIC WORKS EXPENDITURE

	Net Expenditure to Mar. 31st, 1886.	Net Expenditure to Mar. 31st, 1908.
	£	£
Immigration	2,105,618	2,186,712
Railways	12,342,249	24,212,994
Roads	2,865,414	7,861,468
Land Purchases	1,026,809	2,035,748
Public Buildings	1,507,774	3,804,596
Lighthouses, Harbour Works, and Harbour Defence .. }	596,597	1,024,520
Utilization of Water Power	8,348
Defence Material and Build- ings }	417,219	888,168
Lands Improvement..	24,575
Tourist and Health Resorts..	..	158,568
Telegraph Extension ..	520,027	1,479,735
Totals	21,381,707	43,685,432

INDEX

- ABSENTEE, Tax on,** 184
Acclimatisation Societies, 144, 309, 310
Acts of Parliament, various, 402
Admiralty Bay, 5
Advances to Workers Act, 250
Agricultural College, 219
 " **Department,** 203, 335, 336
 " **Industries,** 333, 335
Albatross, 141
Alcoholic liquors, 222, 226, 227
Alien question, 284
Alpine vegetation, 98, 109, 110, 111
Amphibia, Deficiency in number of, 120
Annexation, 34, 37
Antipodes Islands, 8, 25, 27
Appeal, Court of, 280
Appendixes, 328
Arbitration Act, 251, 253
" Arbour Day," 291
Art, 322
Artificial features of New Zealand, 66
Atkinson, Sir Henry, 156, 393, 396, 398
Auckland, 160, 201, 217, 311, 351, 352, 392
 " **Yachting Centre,** 311
Auckland Islands, 8, 23
Australasian Naval Defence Act, 264

BALLANCE, John, 397, 401
Ballot, Second, 173
Banking, 257, 258, 259
Bank of New Zealand, 160, 402
Banks' Peninsula named " Banks Island," by Cook, 5
Banks, Sir Joseph, 6
Bat, only indigenous mammal, 116, 117
Beech, called incorrectly birch by settlers, 91

Beech, New Zealand birch, 88, 90, 91
Bee Culture, 335
Bell bird, 130
Bell, Dr. Mackintosh, on the mineral wealth of the dominion, 81
Birds, 125, 127, 129, 132, 139, 142, 144
Blenheim, 356
Blind, Schools for, 220
Boroughs—Councils, 175, 176, 177
Boundaries, described in detail, 18
 " **inclusion with New South Wales in** 1787, 13, 15
Bounty Islands, 8, 28
Bowen, Hon. C. C., 399
" Boyd," Massacre on board by Maoris, 30
" Britomart," H.M.S., 16
Browne, Sir T. G., 146, 152
Buildings, Business and Government, 202
Buller, Sir W., on New Zealand birds, 129
Busby, Mr., his career, 13, 14
Bush, 69, 87, 88, 92, 101, 325, 326, 327, 328, 332
Butterflies, 123

CABBAGE tree (palm lily), 97, 98
Cadet corps, 207, 215, 271
Cameron, General Sir D., 152, 154
Campbell, Cape, 5
 " **Island,** 18, 25, 113
Canterbury, Province of, etc., 158, 217, 219, 358, 359
Cape Maria Van Demen, 1
Capital and Labour, 256
Capitation grant to Volunteers, 271
Chatham Islands, 18, 26
Children, 221, 290, 291
Chinese immigration, etc., 284, 285
Christchurch, City of, 69, 158, 313

INDEX

- Climate, 74
- Climbing plants, 94
- Clubs, 227
- Coal, 83, 84, 363
- Coal Mines Act, 249
- Colonial Ammunition Company, 273
- Colonial troops, 155, 156
- Colonization, 28, 33, 34, 387, 391
- Colville, Cape, 4
- Commissioner, High, 207
- Compulsory training for defence, 276
- Conciliation, Industrial, 240
- Constabulary, Armed, 261, 262, 266
- Constitution, 45
- Constitution Act, 337
- Continuous Ministry, 398
- Contractors and Workmen's Liens Act, 249
- Cook, Captain, 2, 3, 6, 7, 10, 13
- Cook Group and other islands, 18, 20, 21, 22, 23, 228
- Co-operation, Principle of, in land settlement, 345
- Copper, 84
- Cost of living in New Zealand, 408
- Council of Defence, 275, 276, 277, 278, 384, 385
- Counties, 175, 178
- Crown lands, 147, 338, 339, 342, 343, 347, 349, 351
- Crown lease, 344
- Crocket, his career, 9, 10
- Cuckoo (long tailed), 125
- Customs duties, 194, 195, 196, 197, 198, 208
- DEAF Mutes, School for, 220
- Death rate, 74
- Debt of local governing bodies, 210
 - Public, 209, 400
- Defence, 14, 261, 262, 264, 265, 268, 273, 274
- Degrees, New Zealand University, 216
- Dendy, Dr., observations on tuatara, 123
- Depots for shipwrecked mariners, 26, 27
- Descartes, 121
- De Surville, Captain, his career, 8, 9
- De Thierry, Baron, 14
- Development, Early, 28
 - from 1853-1870, 145
 - " " 1870-1908, 389
- Discovery of New Zealand, 1
- Districts, drainage, 176
 - land, 333
 - river, 176
 - road, 176
 - town, 176
 - water supply, 176
- Domestic life, 290
- Dominion, New Zealand proclaimed a, 375
- Dragon flies, 123
- Drought, 74
- Du Fresne, Marion, 8, 9
- Dunedin, City of, 157
- Duperry, Captain, 11
- D'Urville, Admiral, 11, 12
- EARTHQUAKES, 160
- Education, 214, 215, 217, 219, 220, 389
- Elections, Parliamentary, held on same day, 172
- Electors and qualifications, 167, 171, 176, 177, 178
- "Elector's right," 170
- Empire, Council of Defence for, 38
- Employment, Government, 241, 408
- "Endeavour" purchase by British Government, 2
- Engineering, School of, 219
- Engineers, Royal New Zealand, 266
- Estates, large, aggregation of, 181
- Excise duties, 198
- Exemptions from land tax, 184
- Expenditure, statistics, 208, 209
- FACTORIES Act, 241
- Factories, 242, 243, 244, 370, 371
- Fares, Steamship, 409
- Farewell, Cape, 5
- Farming, 331, 333, 335
- Farms, 335, 345
- Fauna, 116
- Females, decrease of population of, in factories, 371
- Fern, bracken, 95
- Finance, 208, 219
- Fiords, 63

INDEX

- Fish, 117, 125, 309, 365, 367
 Fisheries, 366
 Fishing, 308, 310, 311
 Fitzroy, Captain R.N., his career,
 40, 41, 42
 Flag (national) granted by
 William IV, 14
 Flora, 87
 Flowering forest trees, 103
 Forces, Commander of, 274, 275
 Forestry Department, 329
 Franchise, 168, 170, 172, 176, 179,
 402
 French designs on New Zealand,
 14
 " Discoveries by, 11
 Frozen meat, First shipment of,
 396

 GAME, Absence of, 117
 Gate Pah, Severe action at, 153
 General Assembly, 145
 Geology, 81
 Geysers, 73
 Glaciers, 71
 " Glasgow Lease," 344
 Godwit (Kauka), Concealment of
 nests, 49, 125, 126
 Gold, 85, 86, 159, 160
 Golden Bay, 1
 Gold-seekers, Rush of, 159
 Government, 201, 202, 203
 Governor, duties, position and
 salary of, 164
 Grain, 333, 334
 Grass land, 331, 332
 " seed, 330
 Greenstone, 86
 Grey, Earl, 44, 162
 Grey Government defeated, 395
 " " formed, 394
 " " responsibility for
 native trouble,
 394
 Grey, Sir George, his career, 42,
 43, 44, 45, 47, 152, 157, 162,
 342, 378, 392, 393, 398
 Greymouth, 64, 66

 HALL, Sir John, 395, 399
 Harbour Boards, 176, 179
 Harbours of New Zealand, 62, 64,
 65
 Hare introduced, 118

 Hau Hau religion, 154
 Hawke's Bay, 352, 353
 Heaths, 95
 Hector, Sir James, on geology of
 dominion, 81
 Heron (Kotuku), 127
 Hick's Bay, 4
 High Commission in London, 207
 Hobson, Captain R.N., his
 career, 15, 37, 38, 39
 Hokitika, town or river, same
 name, 64, 79
 Holidays, 244, 245
 Home Government, 37, 39, 46
 Homes, Inebriate, 228
 Horse breeding, 302, 312
 Horses, Wild, 118
 Huia, an ornithological study, 134

 IMMIGRANTS, Advice to, 405, 406
 Immigration, 210, 284, 285, 286,
 288, 289
 Imperial defence, 380, 381, 382,
 383, 385
 " reserve, 268
 " troops, 152, 155
 Income Tax, 181, 187, 188, 189
 Independent Colony, New Zea-
 land made, 17
 Indigenous plants, 87, 99
 Industrial Conciliation and Arbi-
 tration Act, 252
 Industrial Schools, 220
 " Unions, 240, 256
 Industries in various provincial
 districts, 373
 Infectious diseases, 245
 Insect-devouring plant, 111
 Insects (imported), 124, 125
 " (indigenous), 123, 124
 Insurance, 161, 402
 Islands, Outlying, 23

 JERVOIS, Sir William, 262
 Justice, 280, 281

 KAIKOURA, 5, 99
 " Kaka," kind of parrot, 127
 " Kakapo," remarkable charac-
 teristics, 128
 " Katipo " (poisonous spider), 124
 " Kauri," 88, 89, 90, 101
 " Kea," 129
 Kermadec Islands, 20, 21

INDEX

Kidnappers, Cape, 3
 " King Country," 192
 King-maker, 149
 " Kiwi," 132

LABOUR Day, 250
 Labour department, 238, 239,
 240, 251, 253, 372
 Lakes of New Zealand, 60, 63
 Land, 182, 206, 338, 341, 342, 343,
 344, 346, 401
 Land and income-tax, 181, 400
 Land Company, New Zealand, 36,
 37, 338
 „ districts, 333, 351, 357
 „ for Settlement Act, 401
 „ laws, 338
 „ Transfer Act, 393
 Law, Dominion, 280
 Legislation, advanced, 404
 Legislative Council, 163, 164, 165
 Libraries, subsidized, 220
 Licenses, 222, 226, 229
 Licensing Laws, 225, 230
 Lighthouses, 66
 Literature, 320, 321
 Lizard, 120
 Local Option, 222, 223, 224,
 229
 " Lock-outs," 254, 255
 Loyalty and Imperialism, 375
 Lyttelton, Port, 70

MACKENZIE, Sir John, 344, 401,
 403
 MacLaurin, Dr. J. S., Dominion
 Analyst, 86
 Magazines (literary), 318
 Magistrates, 281
 Mail service established *via* San
 Francisco, 393
 Mammals, 116
 Manufactures, 370, 373
 Maori diseases, 53
 „ education, 54
 „ genealogies, 47
 „ land tenure, 55
 „ loyalty, 55, 192
 „ mythology, 49
 „ "parliament," 192
 „ population, 57
 „ priests, power of, 51
 „ religion, 50
 „ reserves, 191

Maori tribe in Urewera country
 claiming descent from
 aborigines, 48
 „ war dances, 51
 „ wealth, how enjoyed, 51
 „ weapons, 51
 „ as volunteers for Boer War,
 192
 „ Clothing of, 50
 „ division into tribes, 51
 „ gain by absorption in
 British Empire, 57, 191
 „ Games of, 53
 „ Ignorance of legal phraseo-
 logy, 37
 „ Occupations of, 52
 „ Original ownership of land
 by, 338, 339
 „ "Pakeha" described, 32
 „ Physical characteristics of,
 50
 „ Present day, 55
 „ Purchases of land from, 339
 „ Representation of, in Par-
 liament, 161, 166, 171
 „ Responsibility of, for early
 bush fires discussed, 326
 „ Sale of fire-arms to, 148
 „ seize Tahitian boy, 3
 „ sent to Diamond Jubilee,
 375
 „ sent to Coronation of
 Edward VII, 375
 „ Tattooing of, 50
 „ Things made sacred by, 51
 „ Troubles with, arising out
 of trade in land, 32, 36
 „ Lands Administration Act,
 349
 Marine Department, 366
 Marlborough, province, etc., 159,
 355, 356
 Marsden, Rev. Samuel, 30, 31
 Massacre at Poverty Bay, 155
 „ at Wairau, 39
 „ Bay, 1
 " Matai," timber of, extremely
 hard, 100
 „ „ very useful,
 100
 McDonell, Colonel, 156
 Mercury Bay, 4
 Meteorological observations
 (table), 80

INDEX

- Migration, Marvels of, 125
 Militia, 266, 267, 268, 269, 270
 Militia and Volunteer Acts, 266, 267
 Miners, Protection of, 249
 "Miner's Right" for country vote, 177
 Mining, 350, 361, 362, 363, 364
 Ministry, formed in 1891, Programme of, 400
 Missionaries, 29, 30, 31
 Moa, 132, 142
 "Monarch of the bush," the beech, 88
 "More pork" (owl), 133
 Mortgages, exemption of, from land-tax, 185
 Mount Egmont, 355
 Mountains of New Zealand, 59, 61, 62
 Municipal bodies, 210, 212, 213
 Municipal Government, 176
 Music, 321, 322
 Mutton Bird, 139, 140

 NAPIER, 353
 National Endowment Act, 348
 Native question, etc., 148, 152, 156, 191, 192
 " department formed, 148
 Naval Defence, 380, 381, 382, 383, 386
 Naval Reserve, branch in Australia of, 383
 Nelson, City of, 159, 356, 357
 " land district, 356
 New Plymouth, 354
 Newspapers, 316, 318
 New Zealand Shipping Company, 393
 North Island, 59-72

 OAMARU, 66
 Old Age Pensions, 235, 236, 237, 286
 "One man one Vote," 397
 Orchids, 109
 Otago, town, etc., 35, 157, 217, 220, 359
 Overtime in employments, 248

 PAINTERS, 323
 "Pakeha" (foreigner), 32, 149

 Palliser, Cape, 5
 Palm (nikau), 93
 Paradise Duck, 138
 Parihaka, native trouble at, 394, 395
 Parker, Professor, 122, 123
 Parrakeet, 127
 Pasture land, 330
 Pearl shell, 22, 23
 Penguin, 141
 Pensioners, Imperial, 188
 Pensions, 206, 235, 279
 Periodicals (monthly), 319
 Peripatus, 123
 Phormium Tenax (New Zealand Flax), 108
 Pine, white, 100, 101
 Pinealgland, 121, 122
 Plains of New Zealand, 61, 62
 Plenty, Bay of, 3
 Police, 282, 283
 Political parties, 399
 Polling day, 171
 Population, appendix, 161, 191, 221
 " Comparison at various periods, 161
 " Proportion of, who can read and write, 221
 Port Chalmers, port of Dunedin, 70
 Proclamations, 15, 151, 152
 Produce, Value of, 161
 Progressive Ministry, Labour laws introduced by, 238
 "Prohibited person," 227
 Property-tax, 400
 Provinces, 147, 163, 164, 175, 392
 Provincial Governments, 163, 399
 Public Contracts Act, 249
 Public Houses, Hours for closing, 225
 " Schools, 214, 215
 " Trust Office Act, 393
 " Trustee, 205
 " Works, 202, 210, 390, 391

 QUALIFICATION, property, for Parliament, 168
 Queen Charlotte's Sound, 4, 7

 RABBIT, 117

INDEX

- Railways, 159, 185, 231, 232, 233, 234
 Rainfall, 74, 75, 76, 326
 Rat, 116
 Rata tree, 102, 103
 Reciprocity, 199, 200
 Reeves, Hon. W. P., 251
 " his career, 401
 Re-forestation, benefits of, 329
 Religious bodies, 289
 Religious Societies, Exemption of from land tax, 185
 Representatives, House of, 166, 167
 Reptiles, 120
 Reserves, timber, Control of, 329
 Revenue, 163, 209
 Rifle Clubs, Defence, 271, 273
 River districts, 176
 Rivers of New Zealand, 61, 64
 Road districts, 176
 Rolleston, Hon. W., 399
 Ross, Sir James, Arctic explorer, 12
 Rotorua, Wonders to be seen at, 72
 Routes to New Zealand, 407
 Royal New Zealand Artillery, 266, 268
 " " Engineers, 266

 SAILOR's Vote, 170
 Salmon, 125, 309
 Sanitation, 245, 246
 Schools and Scholarships, 148, 214, 215, 216, 217, 218, 220
 Science and Art, 219
 Scrub, Manuka (tea-tree), 96
 " real (coprosina), 96
 Sculpture, 323
 Sea Lion, 119
 Seals, 120
 Seddon, Right Hon. R. J., 216, 376, 401, 402, 403
 Separation from New South Wales, November, 1840, 17
 Servant question in dominion, 297
 Settlement, First true, at Petone, 35
 " on open land, 329
 Settler's vegetable friend, 109
 Sever, Captain, 8
 Shag, 140
 " Shaggenes," 141
 Shareholders and land-tax, 186
 Shaw, Major-General, 262
 Sheep, destruction of by Kea, 129
 Sheep-runs, 342, 348
 Ship cook, 4
 Shipwrecked mariners, Depots for use of, 26
 Shop Assistants, 246, 274
 Shops, total number of, 374
 " and Offices Act, 245, 246
 " and stores in dominion, 297
 Shortland, Lieut. R.N., 39, 40
 Silver associated with platinum, 86
 Small Farm Associations, 345
 Snipe, 138, 139
 Snow, perpetual on mountains, 63
 Socialism, State, 364, 399
 Social life, 291, 293, 298, 299
 Solander, Dr., Naturalist, 6
 South African Contingents, 377, 378, 379
 South Cape, 5
 South Island, 5, 62, 63, 64, 71
 South land, province, 138, 360
 Sports, 300, 301, 302, 304, 306, 308, 309, 312, 314, 315
 Springs (thermal), 61, 63
 Steam, Mail communication established, 160
 " Service, Introduction of, 368, 396
 Stewart's Island, 5, 65
 Stout, Sir Robert, 396
Stout-Vogel Ministry, 396
 Strikes, 254, 255
 Submarine mines, 263, 273
 Suffrage, Adult, 167
 Sunday Island, 20
 Superannuation, Scheme of, 207
 Supple Jack lily, 107
 Sweating, 244
 Sydney, 28

 TAKAHE, Extreme rarity of, 130
 Taranaki, 35, 150, 353, 355
 Tariff, 195, 197, 198
 Tasman, A. J., sights South Island, 1642, 1, 5
 Taxation, 181, 190
 Tea, 200
 Teachers, Training of, 218

INDEX

- Te-Kooti*, 155
 Telegraph, 160, 393
 Temperance question, 169
 Temperature, 80, 79
Te Ranga, battle of, 154
 Terraces, Pink and White, 397
Te Toira, 150
Te Whiti, 355, 394, 396
 Three Kings Islands, 1
 Timaru, town with harbour on east coast, South Island, 66
 Timber, 328, 329
 Tologa Bay, 3, 4
 Torpedo boats, 262
 " corps, 263
 Totara, durability of timber, 100
 " Maori canoes made of, 101
 Tourists, Efforts to attract, 204
 Town districts, 176
 Trees (imported), 113
 Tregear, E., 2
 " Arbitration and Conciliation Act, 252
 Triennial Parliaments Act, 395, 399
 Troops sent to Boer War, 375, 377
 " " Coronation of Edward VII, 375
 " " Diamond Jubilee, 375
 Trout fishing, 308, 309
 Trustee, liability of the land-tax, 186
 " Public, 205
 Tutara (Lizard), 121, 122, 123
 Tui (bird), 135
 Tuition, free, 218, 219
 Turnagain Cape, 3
 Tussock grass, 96, 97, 98
 " land, 330, 331

 UNDESIRABLES, 288
 Unemployed, 240, 345
 Universities, 216
 Union flag, 4
 Union Steamship Company, 393
 Urewera Country, 192

 VALUERS, State, 187
 Vancouver, Captain, Visit by, 11

 Vegetable sheep, 113
 Vegetation (native), 87, 95
 Venomous reptiles, 120
 Victoria College, Wellington, 216
 Village Settlements, 346
 Visitors, Early, to New Zealand, 8
 Volcanic eruption at Tarawera, 397
 Volunteers, 268, 270, 271, 272, 276
 Voters, Qualification of, 168
 Voting, Plural, not allowed, 172
 Vogel, Sir Julius, his career, 390, 391, 392, 396, 398

 WAGES, Rise in, 251
 Wairau Massacre, 39
 Waitangi, Treaty of, 15, 16, 17
 Wakefield, E. G., his career, 34
 Waller, Captain, 140
 Wanganui (town), 35
 Ward, Sir Joseph, 401
 Wardens' Courts, 281
 Waste lands, Crown, 338
 Water supply districts, 176
 Wealth (public), 259, 260
 Weeds, 114
 Wellington, town, etc., 78, 201, 216, 231, 353
 Westland, province, etc., 159, 357
 Westport (harbour), 64, 66
 Whale (Pelones Jack), 118, 119
 Whalers, 32, 33
 Wharton, Captain W. H., R.N., 6
 White Island, 65
 Whitmore, Sir Geo., 156
 Whittaker, Sir Fredk., 399
 Wind, 77, 78, 79
 Wiremu Kingi (Maori chief), 149, 150
 Woman in dominion, 168, 204, 291, 292, 402
 Woollen manufactures, 372
 Workers, 240, 245, 246, 247, 248, 250, 251
 Workers' cottages and village settlements, 346
 Workers' Dwellings Act, 250
 Workmen's Wages Act, 241

 YOUNG, Nicholas, 3

 ZEEHAN (yacht), 1

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